



LEABHARLANII LÁIR, NA MBRÁITHRE CRÍOSTAÍ



the hestirisher from Albu Monne

ARGUMENT FOR IRELAND.

вұ

JOHN Q'CONNELL, ESQ. M.P.

"Resolved unanimously—That a claim of any body of men, other than the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, to make laws to bind this kingdom, is unconstitutional, illegal, and a grievance."—Dungannon Volunteers, February 15th, 1782.

SECOND EDITION.

PRINTED BY ORDER OF

THE LOYAL NATIONAL REPEAL ASSOCIATION OF IRELAND.

DUBLIN: JOHN BROWNE, 21, NASSAU-STREET. 1847.

11H 950.5 .04x 1847

CHESTNUT HILL, MA 02167

PREFACE.

THE present compilation will, I am well aware, be found, on perusal, to betray evident marks of haste and want of sufficient care; but, I trust, not of wilful misstatement, or any important inaccuracy as to facts or principles enunciated.

It has been put together at irregular times, with occasional long intervals, according as the vicissitudes of an active political agitation allowed some comparative leisure to those engaged in it, or required from the humble, as well as from the more able and distinguished of its promoters, an increase of action and attention.

I have been deprived, by a fortuitous circumstance, of the period of general revision, to which I had looked, and on which I had counted, to enable me to correct and amend what may be defective throughout

the work. The circumstance to which I allude is, the necessity of my close and constant attendance (as one of the traversers) from an early hour of every morning to a late hour in the afternoon, upon the present state trials in Ireland.

To delay the appearance of the work for some months longer would have been, in some measure, to defeat its object, which was, to have before the public, from an early period of the approaching parliamentary session, a compilation, as compact as possible, of the leading facts and arguments bearing on the question of the Repeal of the Union.

JOHN O'CONNELL.

Tuesday, January 16th, 1844, Court of Queen's Bench.

LEABHARLANN MIR,

PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION.

In this edition there have been several amendments of inaccuracies occasioned by the haste with which the author had to send the first to press, and a considerable addition has been made to the table of contents, as well as a thorough revision of what was given before.

The remarks at the end upon the present distress of Ireland, and the proposed remedies for it, as well as the summary historical Sketch of Poor Laws since their first institution in England, will not be thought inappropriate at this crisis, when the public mind is so occupied with those topics.

JOHN O'CONNELL.

Dublin, Nov. 26, 1846.



CONTENTS.

				Page.
Preface	•••	***	• • •	iii
Preface to the Second Edition	•••	•••		v
An Argument for Ireland—Chapter	· I.	• • •	• • •	1
Chapter	r II.	•••	•••	19
Chapter	r III.	•••	•••	28
APPENDIX, No. 1.—The Inadequate	Representa	ation Grieva	nce	49
Addenda, No. 1.	•••	•••	•••	68
No. 2.			•••	71
APPENDIX, No. 2.—The Regency Q	uestion	•••		73
No. 3.—The Irish Legis	lative Inde	ependence C	on-	
troversy	•••	•••	•••	77
Addendum		• • •		109
No. 4.—The Commercia	l Injustice	S		153
Addenda	•••	•••		251
No. 5.—Means by which	the Unio	n was carrie	d	277
No. 6.—The Taxation I		•••	•••	289
Addendum	•••	•••	•••	367
No. 7.—The Church Te	emporalities	s Grievance	•••	373
MISCELLANEA		•••		383
Concluding Remarks		•••	•••	395
History of Poor Laws in England				405
ACT FOR THE UNION of Great Britai	n and Irela	and	•••	427
Lords' Protest against the Union	•••	•••		469
Mr. O'CONNELL'S PLAN for the R	e-construc	tion of the	Irish	
Parliament	•••	•••	• • •	473
Indox				485



AN ARGUMENT FOR IRELAND.

CHAPTER I.

The foundation of all society is the yielding up by individuals of a portion of their natural liberties, in order to obtain protection and security for the remainder. As those liberties are the gift of the Deity, it will not be denied that his gracious design in granting them, is best and most reverently followed out where the portion yielded is small and limited in degree. A general test is thus supplied for judging of the respective merits or demerits of the systems of government prevalent in the various societies or nations of the world.

But in the particular application of this test, there are circumstances to be taken into account, which are held to justify the greater amount of restrictions upon natural liberty in some countries than in others.

These exceptionable cases are mainly reducible to two—the first, where a people are alleged to have used their powers in a manner detrimental to the great community of nations; the second, where they are said to be incapable of rightly managing their own affairs.

A wide field opens here for abuse; and accordingly many and flagrant have been the abuses, and the gross and crying injustices, that have been committed under cover of those pleas. The external interference employed to effect a remedy in the first case, has ever been pushed beyond all fair and reasonable limit; and thus, under pretext of eliminating one evil of doubtful existence, the seed has been sown, recklessly, or with deliberate malignity, of a thousand certain and deadly mischiefs. Nations banded together to repress and punish wanton aggression by an individual member of their great community, have not staved their hands with the execution of this lawful purpose, but gone on to invade and destroy the innoxious and rightful liberties of the aggressor. And in the case of alleged incapacity of a particular nation to manage their own affairs, the charge had been brought forward with dishonest vagueness, and adjudicated upon with indecent haste, by a party interested, which has then not hesitated to employ force and fraud to carry into effect its own unwarrantable decisions, and to enable it to trample upon the rights and the happiness of the accused.

The task upon which we are about to enter, is the application of the general test we have enumerated, to the political condition of Ireland—to see in how far the principles of justice may in her case have been regarded and respected, or violated and outraged.

That Ireland suffers under a restriction of her rights, is a position requiring little proof. No country can be said to enjoy her natural measure of rights, whose people have not a prevailing voice in the passing of the laws which affect them. The Irish people have not that voice; for not only have they been deprived of their own parliament, but the share of representation allotted to them in the imperial parliament is most unjustly small and disproportionate. Out of 658 members of the united legislature, Ireland numbers but 105; and the occasions have not been few, when, in consequence of this disproportion, their voices have been overruled, and their will set at naught—and this too upon

questions of extreme importance to Irish interests—by the voices and the will of the overwhelming majority of the members for Great Britain.

The grounds alleged at the Union for this disproportion will be found in the Appendix to this Report, article No. 1, which also contains data for its proper adjustment, and some details of its injustice, as exemplified on a comparison between parliamentary districts in Great Britain and Ireland respectively.

But in speaking of an adjustment by a new arrangement of proportions in the imperial parliament, we must be understood as speaking of only a temporary expedient, and by no means as recognizing or admitting the soundness of the principle of united legislation. In fact we touch upon the matter at all, only as it helps the better to illustrate the extreme injustice that has been done us in this respect. Were it a topic to be enlarged upon, we should first settle the important question—would England allow of an alteration in the relative proportions—at least to any extent of importance and value? The strong probability is to the contrary; for not only have those writers and speakers in England, who assume the designation of "Friends of Ireland," and declare their anxiety that our claims to equality in civil rights should be attended to, never once proposed an addition to our members, but whenever such a project has been even hinted at, the organs of public opinion in England have loudly and unanimously declared against it.

Even the paltry addition of five, given by the reform bill to the Irish representatives, received most strenuous opposition; and when we find (see the article already referred to) that the most humble estimate of justice to Ireland in the matter of parliamentary representation, would require an addition of, at the very least, fifty members to her present number, (and of course an equivalent subtraction from the

English roll,) there scarce can be a doubt but that the proposition of altering in favour of Ireland the existing proportions in the imperial parliament would be rejected at once.

But taking the case at the best—were we to be so unexpectedly favored, as to be given a large concession in this respect, yet as upon any proportionate calculation, our number should be an inferiority to the British, Ireland would still be under grievous disadvantage, as upon any international question, her will could be coerced, and her interests jeopardied, or totally sacrificed. Thus the grand defect in the system of united legislation would, upon all questions of magnitude, demonstrate itself as flagrant and mischievous as ever.

The parliamentary representation of Ireland being thus indisputably defective, does any reason exist why it should be so? Do either of the cases which are held to justify the modified application of the test we have specified, exist with regard to Ireland? Did she use her powers in a manner detrimental to the great community of nations? Or had she shown any incapacity of rightly managing her own affairs?

That her legislative independence was an injury to foreign nations need not be discussed, as it never has for a moment been pretended. Many, however, assert that it was of injury to England and to the empire, for which opinion they assign the following pretexts—first, that it prevented a unity of action with England; second, that it left a door open to foreign intrigue and domestic confusion; and third, that it unjustly exempted Ireland from her proper share of the burthens of the empire. We proceed to examine these pretexts in their order.

The only established fact that has been put forward in support of the first of them is, that the respective parliaments of Great Britain and Ireland differed in the year

1789 upon the subject of the Regency, then under discussion, in consequence of the first and temporary alienation of mind of George the Third. A succinct account of this difference will be found in article No. 2 of the Appendix, and therefore nothing further need be said here on the subject, save that it is now generally allowed that the Irish Parliament took the more constitutional view of the ques-Its recurrence, in the event of a restoration of the Irish Parliament, would be provided against by the consent that Ireland would be found ready to give to an arrangement that should leave the selection of a Regent solely to the British parliament. This she might do with great advantage from the obviating of a source of jealousy, dissensions, and confusion, and with no real constitutional disadvantage; inasmuch as the control over the finance of their country would still be with the Irish representatives, and consequently the means in their hands which the constitution has provided for holding despotism in check, and carrying into effect the will of the people, even where directly in opposition to that of their ruler.

With regard to any other differences that may be Difference between the alleged, either to have occurred, or to have been inevitable, parliaments to be parliaments to be provided by the beautiful to be provided by the beau had the parliaments continued separate, our answer is short. dered on The mere fact of their occurrence cannot be considered abstractedly from the question as to which parliament was right, and which parliament was wrong in the matter of dispute. England had in 1782, by the repeal of the 6th Geo. I., (the act which declared the power of her laws to bind Ireland,) and still more by a statute of the next year, 1783, (23 Geo. III., c. 28,) coupled with the declaration of her minister, Mr. Fox, in the former year, (assented to by the parliament he addressed,) acknowledged the right of Ireland to independent legislation; and therefore, of course, her right to adopt whatever measures of policy she chose.

irrespective of what might be the opinions of other parts of the empire.

Those differences were as to commercial arrangements

England sought in 1785 to limit the confessed rights of Ireland in these particulars.

The only pretence of differences, other than treated of in a preceding paragraph, is as to commercial arrangements. That the countries did not pull together on this subject is certain—at least from the year 1785 out. But with whom was the fault? England, according to Mr. Pitt, in 1785, (when moving the celebrated "Commercial Propositions" of that year, for an account of which, see Appendix No. 4,) wanted to "resume the ignorant and unsystematic concessions she had made to Ireland in 1779-80, when the pressure of adverse external circumstances (see the same Appendix) forced the British parliament to do away with the greater part of the then existing most cruel restrictions on the trade of Ireland, and to allow her freedom of foreign and colonial trade. It was to the latter that Mr. Pitt particularly referred, as he declared at the same time that foreign trade was the "natural right of Ireland," and "no favour or concession." In this declaration he only confirmed the words of Lord North, when minister, in December, 1779. But though he appeared to limit his aim to recovery of control of the colonial trade, an examination of the tendency of the "propositions" above alluded to, will shew, that in reality he sought again to hamper all the trade of Ireland, and make her subservient in this respect to the will and supposed interests of her jealous neighbour. This was plainly an improper object, and Ireland was in the right in resisting and defeating it.

Not even with regard to the colonial trade was his conduct justifiable. Ireland had contributed with blood and treasure to the acquisition of the British colonies, and for upwards of twenty years previous to 1779 had supplied, and in every way maintained, a large military contingent for their protection. And she had done this while utterly

denied all commerce with them; and, therefore, of course, all benefit from their annexation to the empire. And when in 1780 she was allowed trade with them, she most dearly paid for the concession, by giving their products the monopoly of her market, when she could have cheaper supplied herself from foreign colonies.

In short, unless the monstrous proposition can be sustained, that the rightful exercise of rightful liberties by one nation is an injury to another, no case can be made against Ireland from anything that occurred in the period 1780-1800. At a future stage, we shall consider the question of possible international differences after Repeal.

The next pretext we have now to notice is, that the le-Second pregislative independence of Ireland left a door open to foreign lity to foreign in intrigue and domestic confusion.

text : liabireign invasion and demestic rebellion.

Generalities, when resorted to in advocacy of liberal principles, are usually met with derision and disregard by the opponents of those principles. But the very men who slight them when so employed, will be found to have resort to the vaguest general assertions themselves, when advocating measures of their own. Few assertions can be more vague, and none less supported by facts, than that embodied in the pretext we are noticing; yet not only when originally invented was it eagerly laid hold of and employed; but even at the present day it is a favorite with those who seek to wrest and pervert the history of the past into an argument against the fairest and justest projects of the future.

This pretext was particularly employed during the debates upon the Union; when with impudent and reckless disregard of facts, it was flung in the teeth of the defenders of the Irish parliament,—a parliament whose fault certainly Irish parliawas not a want of will and effort—and most successful effort—to repel foreign invasion and crush domestic rebeland erushed the other.

lion. Had the government been as true to its duty in these points as was the Irish parliament, the rebellion would never have occurred: the rebellion having been, as is now established beyond controversy (see Appendix, No. 5), fomented by the government for the purpose of creating a favourable state of things for compelling Ireland to a legislative union. It is now clearly established that that rebellion was suffered to go on, growing and gathering, for fully eleven months after clear and positive intelligence had been given to the authorities of its existence; and of the names, intention, and actions of the chief persons who were engaged in it. The parliament of Ireland spared no effort to crush it when known; and hesitated at no expense, as the votes of the day, and the enormous public expenditure during the last few years of that parliament, can abundantly testify; and the results were, as we have said, the repulsion of foreign invasion, and, despite the most criminal tardiness of the executive, the complete putting down of rebellion at home.

These results were never disputed, as they never could be,—neither was any specific reason attempted to be assigned, why the recurrence of external or domestic disturbances could be rendered less likely by abolishing a body, who, living in Ireland, knew the country, and were upon the spot, ready and prompt to crush those disturbances again as they did before, and substituting for them a parliament composed, for upwards of five-sixths of the whole, of persons totally ignorant of Ireland, and dwelling and legislating hundreds of miles from her shores.

Passing this most frivolous of the many frivolous and flimsy arguments against Irish independence, we address ourselves to the last of the three special pretexts, of the incompatibility of the latter with the interests of England and of the empire. This pretext is, that under her own

Third pre text: Ireland unduly exempted from public burthens. parliament Ireland was saved exempt from a due share of the general burthens.

There is, to an Irishman, a prima facie recommendation of the state of things prior to the Union, in this confession of the comparative light pressure upon Ireland, of the imperial burthens under that regime. Yet Irishmen will not be found to be so unfair as to stand up for an undue exemption at any time. But the fact is, that so far from Unfounded. her financial exertions having been too limited, she actually crippled herself by her efforts to be of assistance to England.

Her debt—which like to that of England, originated in the reign of William III., was no more than £16,000 in the year 1715; by the year 1721 it had increased to £77,260, in consequence, as will be seen on reference to the official records of the time, of the exertions of her parliament to strengthen the hands of the monarch in the unsettled times, after the first Scottish insurrection in favour of the exiled Stuarts. This amount, small as it would now be consi- She condered, or might even then be, to a rich country, yet was of national debt in assuch importance and magnitude to Ireland, as to be noticed sisting England, whose with grave anxiety by the then Viceroy, the Duke of policy had impoverish-Bolton, in his speech from the throne. Its importance ed and crippled her. proceeded from the impoverished condition of the country, the resources of which had been wasted by the violence of the civil convulsions which had so rapidly succeeded each other in the preceding century. The country had been placed almost beyond the possibility of recovery from their effect, by the tyrannically unjust commercial restrictions which marked the reigns of Charles the Second and William the Third. We have again to refer the reader to article No. 4, for particulars, not only as to the enactment of those restrictions, but as to their operation for cyil of themselves, and with the concurring evil influence upon the springs of industry, of the penal laws.

Continued wretchedness of Ireland under this policy.

Yet she strained herself to the utmost to assist England.

The ruinous agencies we have there set forth as tending to crush Irish manufactures, continued their disastrous operation uninteruptedly, and the consequence was, the continually increasing impoverishment of Ireland. Successive parliaments and successive viceroys iterated and reiterated complaints of this powerty during the forty succeeding years. And yet, so great was the anxiety to assist England, that we find the Irish parliament about the year 1759 passing two votes, one of £150,000, and the other of £300,000, for that purpose—the greater part of the money expended too in increasing the Irish military contingent to the British forces serving abroad! In 1761 they voted a further sum for the latter purpose, to the amount of £200,000. And the importance of these efforts cannot fully be estimated, without the fact being stated, that whereas the economy of the Irish parliament had enabled them to clear off the debt of Ireland by the year 1754, the liberality of their subsidies to England created a new debt, that by the year 1763 amounted to half a million, and eight years later was further increased to nearly £800,000! (see Commons Journals.) Nay, at the period last mentioned, viz., the year 1771, the Irish parliament were so complaisant, as not only to vote an enormous loan, but to pass an act, giving the King the power of alienating the hereditary revenue of Ireland.

Her efforts were great, when her wretchedness is considered.

It is to be repeated again and again, that these efforts are not to be judged of by the mere abstract amount of the monies they extracted from Ireland, or by a naked comparison with the efforts of a country so abounding in wealth as England. The poverty of Ireland is ever to be borne in mind,* and the consequent disproportionate importance of such sums to her.

^{*} In the article No. 4 of the Appendix, on "Commercial Injustices," will be found several testimonies as to the poverty of Ireland before 1780, and its causes.

In addition to the cruel depressions occasioned by her unjust restrictions in commerce and manufactures, and the blighting influence upon the industry of the country, of the penal laws, which shut out the majority of the people from profitable enterprize and employment, there was a further cause of exhaustion and misery in the unchecked, or rather accelerated progress of absenteeism. To the fatal drain caused by this old monster-evil of Ireland, no stop could be given, so long as the thraldom of the Irish parliament left that sense of provincial degradation, from which the aristocracy of a country are ever glad to fly.

We now come to the period when Ireland was relieved How she acted when from some of the oppression practised upon her, and obtaining the power of free self-legislation, may be considered bettered. more justly accountable, if her efforts to share the imperial burthens shall not appear to have been of due magnitude. The period of which we would speak is, that from 1782 to the accomplishment of the Union.

That the newly emancipated parliament did not even let its first session of complete liberty pass over without making an effort, may be gathered from the speech with which the lord lieutenant of the day, the Duke of Portland, closed the eventful session of that year. He spoke as follows :-

"Gentlemen of the House of Commons-when I consi-Governder the very active and liberal part you have taken in con-knowledgetributing to these glorious events (alluding to the military rious times events of the year), I must as distinctly express to you his 1782 and 1800, of the majesty's sense of the last effusion of your GENEROSITY for efforts and the defence of the empire, as I must return to you his most of Ireland. gracious thanks for the supplies which you so cheerfully voted at the beginning of the session."

Thus, not only were the ordinary government supplies voted "cheerfully," but the throne acknowledged a "gene-

rosity" of further assistance to the imperial exchequer. In the next year, 1783, and in a new parliament, a motion for a reduction of the peace establishment of the army was rejected by a large majority, notwithstanding that it was supported by the recommendations of a committee that had sat some years before, and by the arguments from Flood and others, to the effect that the debt had been constantly increasing since the augmentation of the army in 1762, at the rate of £100,000 per annum—that a country like Ireland, "whose circulating cash was but one million and a half, could not bear such a military establishment"—that "by frugality, we might be able to assist England in the hour of distress," &c. &c. In 1784, parliament was again thanked from the throne for the "cheerfulness" with which they had made provision for "the exigencies and honor of his Majesty's government." The viceroy's speech at the conclusion of the next session, 1785, thanked the Commons, " in his Majesty's name, for their liberal provision for the public service, honorable support of his government, and generous contribution of supplies." In this session they had voted new taxes to the amount of £140,000, in order to make the annual revenue of the country cover its expenditure, which, for twenty-five or twenty-six years before, it had constantly failed to do; and in the succeeding session continued the same taxes for the same purpose, and with perfect success. In this manner the Irish parliament continued to earn and receive the royal thanks for their "liberality" and "generosity" during the remaining years of peace; and the following short statement, in figures, of the respective increase of the British and Irish debts, from the commencement of the last French war to the Union, will shew, that, in fact, Ireland made greater efforts, proportionably speaking, than Great Britain, towards the support of the government and the defence of the empire.

Herefforts in time of war.

Funded and Unfunded Debts, unredeemed, of Great Britain and Ireland respectively, in each of the years from 1791 to 1801.

YEARS.	GREAT BRITAIN.	IRELAND.
1792	£241,811,668	$\dots £2,252,667$
1793	249,114,516	2,874,267
1794	263,632,894	4,002,451
1795	321,256,823	5,577,098
1796	364,581,572	6,537,467
1797	388,916,734	10,134,674
1798	416,799,075	15,806,723
1799	424,519,343	23,100,785
1800	450,504,984	28,541,157
Assaumts :	in Amendia from No. 1 to No.	19 Dan Danan

Great increase of

(Accounts in Appendix, from No. 1 to No. 12, Par. Paper, 35 of 1819.)

Now, if it be borne in mind, that until a few years before the commencement of the period 1780-1800, the Irish debt had never amounted to one million, it will be at once seen how very great were the exertions of Ireland while legislatively independent.

Taking her prosperity during that period to have been all that it is said (with good reason) to have been, her exertions must have been enormous, to have incurred such a debt notwithstanding such prosperity. Supposing, for a moment, as the unionists contend, that she was not by any means so prosperous, then her good will and anxiety to assist England, become still more apparent and conspicuous.

As, therefore, the assertion of Ireland's undue exemption from public burthens before the Union cannot be maintherefore untenable. tained, the last of the three pretexts is disposed of, on which the opponents of the legislative independence of Ireland attempt to ground the assertion of injury to even one other nation from that independence. Consequently,

Therefore Ireland's legislative independence was no injury to England.

the first of the two cases laid down by us in the commencement, as being generally held to justify greater restrictions of natural right in one country than in another, cannot be said to exist with regard to Ireland.

Next point: Did Ireland shew unfitness for selfmanagement?

It remains to be considered whether the second of these cases does or does not exist; namely, whether her history, while in the enjoyment of legislative independence, can be said to afford proofs that she was incapable of rightly managing her own affairs.

If Irish parliament persecuting and profligate, was that of England better?

One class of arguments much used by the assertors of this incapacity, is deduced from the profligate jobbing, and the cruel religious persecution, of which, undoubtedly, the Irish parliament was guilty. The answer is so plain and palpable, that it needs but to be stated, without delaying for comment or protracted consideration. Of religious persecution the English parliament was, at least, equally guilty; and if it were less given to profligacy and "jobbing"—(a matter by no means to be taken upon credit, but the examination of which is not needed to strengthen our answer)—this is to be remembered, that in Ireland the parliament was not that of the nation, but of a party—of a sect, and yet not of the entire even of that sect: its constituencies being most limited; and no less than 216 out of the 300 members of the commons, being, in fact, what is called "nomination-members."

The worst deeds of the Irish parliament were under English influences.

It has been too much the fashion, we must here remark incidentally, to decry the parliaments that existed in Ireland before the Union. We have already said that their bad deeds are indisputable, and in no way do we seek to palliate them. But with all their faults, their conduct on many occasions was such as would have done credit to the legislature of any country—and this was when they acted of themselves; while on the occasion when they acted badly, the crime was generally at the suggestion of England, and for English purposes.

To please England, an Irish parliament consented to the annihilation of the Irish woollen trade in 1699. To serve England, successive Irish parliaments loaded their country with debt. It is, at the least, ungrateful in Englishmen, to make this very subserviency a subject of attack, and a reason for denouncing those who were guilty of it, for, as we have said, English purposes and English advantage.

In article No. 3 of the Appendix, are recorded several Its good deeds its good deeds of Irish parliaments, which assuredly ought to be taken some note of, when its evil deeds have been so

sedulously

"Learned and conned by rote, To cast into our teeth!"

A very short summary is all that need be given here. Various instances of They showed their care of the public purse, and desire of its self-assertion. preserving, at least, some principles of the constitution in Ireland, by rejecting money-bills in 1690, 1709, and 1769, either because of not having originated with themselves, or of alterations made in the English privy council; by defeating, in 1729, an audacious attempt of the government to get the supplies for several years to come included in one vote; and by resisting even the crown itself, in its attempt in 1751-53 to assert a right of controul over surplus monies then in the treasury. By the judicious management of the parliament, the debt of the nation was paid off by the year 1754, and a further surplus having occurred, they set about the distribution and allocation of it with a haste prompted and stimulated by their dread of a renewed attempt on the part of the crown to control them in those respects.

We are not going to defend every item of application Excuses for then and subsequently voted, but the great majority of policy in them were for purposes of internal improvement—opening stances. up the resources of Ireland, employing the people, &c. &c.:

and if they were often ill-considered, the fault is mainly with the government, whose rapacity was dreaded, and with the ideas of the age, which were by no means advanced on the subject of political economy.

If ever there was a country in which legislative interference to assist industry was required, that country was Ireland—where there had been so much legislative interference to cripple and impede it. England herself had hedged round her industrial interests with various protective and fostering enactments; several of them grievously interfering with Irish interests; and the depressed and miserable condition of the latter seemed to demand the utmost efforts in a similar direction, that the limited power of the Irish legislature would allow them to make.

Unquestion able good conduct in others.

In 1703, and again in 1719, the latter body protested against and sought to resist grievously unjust encroachments upon their authority and power, made by the legislature of Great Britain. In 1767, the Irish parliament passed a septennial bill, thereby voluntarily subjecting themselves to their constitutional responsibility to the people, at certain and definite periods, instead of as under the previous system, when the exercise of the electoral right depended upon the death of the monarch, if it were not his will during life to give the people that advantage. The English privy council, true to their unvarying policy of throwing every obstacle in the way of Irish rights, altered the provisions of the bill, substituting the term of eight for that of seven years; in the unworthy hope, that as their assumed power of alteration had been so disputed and denied in Ireland, the measure in its new state might be dropped there. But rather than lose even a qualified benefit to their country, the Irish parliament took no notice of the affront to themselves, and passed the bill such as it was.

The manner in which they compelled the concession of If base in 1800, so was commercial liberty in 1780, and of legislative independence the English parliament. in 1782, is abundantly detailed in articles before referred to in the appendix. If afterwards they basely surrendered that independence to England, it was under the pressure of a system of intimidation and corruption without parallel, and quite as great a disgrace to the British legislature that sanctioned and encouraged it, as to the Irish legislature that sank under it.

In matters of religion, if the Irish parliament acted Catholic Emancipaharshly and cruelly in the earlier and middle parts of the to stopped by the last century, so did the British; and towards the end of the Union till forced from Frederick in century the former set eagerly about repairing the evil, England in having in twenty years, up to 1794, passed no less than four important enactments for removing religious disabilities.* They would have proceeded to remove the whole, but for the confusion and distraction of the rebellion fomented by the government for the purpose of stopping these and other efforts of the Irish parliament to benefit their country. The Union was then carried with a promise to the Catholics that the progressive benevolence of the Irish parliament towards them should be surpassed by the immediate and entire concession in their favor by the imperial parliament. Twenty-nine long years elapsed ere the promise was redeemed, and then only under the compulsion of an impending civil war.

Immediately after the achievement of legislative inde-other evipendence in 1782, the Irish parliament passed a bill giving attention to be pendence in 1782, the Irish parliament passed a bill giving attention to be pendence in 1782, the Irish parliament passed a bill giving attention to be pendence in 1782, the Irish parliament passed a bill giving attention to be pendence in 1782, the Irish parliament passed a bill giving attention to be pendence in 1782, the Irish parliament passed a bill giving attention to be pendence in 1782, the Irish parliament passed a bill giving attention to be pendence in 1782, the Irish parliament passed a bill giving attention to be pendence in 1782, the Irish parliament passed a bill giving attention to be pendence in 1782, the Irish parliament passed a bill giving attention to be pendence in 1782, the Irish parliament passed a bill giving attention to be pendence in 1782, the Irish parliament passed a bill giving attention to be pendence in 1782, the Irish parliament passed a bill giving attention to be pendence in 1782, the Irish parliament passed as a bill giving attention to be pendence in 1782, the Irish parliament passed as a bill giving attention to be pendence in 1782, the Irish parliament passed as a bill giving attention to be pendence in 1782, the Irish parliament passed as a bill giving attention to be pendence in 1782, the Irish parliament passed as a bill giving attention to be pendence in 1782, the Irish parliament passed as a bill giving attention to be pendence in 1782, the Irish parliament passed as a bill giving attention to be pendence in 1782, the Irish parliament passed as a bill giving attention to be pendence in 1782, the Irish parliament passed as a bill giving attention to be pendence in 1782, the Irish parliament passed as a bill giving attention to be pendence in 1782, the Irish parliament passed as a bill giving attention to be pendence in 1782, the Irish parliament passed as a bill giving attention to be pendence in 1782, the Irish parliament passed as a bill giving attention to be pendence in 1782, the Irish pas Ireland the benefit, by express statute, of the English ests by the Irish par-Habeas Corpus Act, and another repealing the unconstitu-

^{*} The dates were respectively 1778, 1782, 1792, and 1793. The concessions progressively given, were of the rights of property, freedom of education and of religious observances, admission to the professions and corporations, and, in short, of nearly everything save admission to parliament.

tional perpetual munity bill. In 1785 they were deluded and cajoled into accepting Ord's celebrated "commercial resolutions;" but by so small a majority that the government had to give the matter up. From that time until the Irish parliament ceased to exist in 1800, if they displayed corruption and baseness at times, particularly in the last few years of their existence, the records of their legislation are not, however, deficient in evidences of frequent attention to at least the manufacturing interests of their country.

What might not have been done by a parliament really representing such a people.

If this wretched parliament of a small section of the people did yet shew itself so frequently worthy of being entrusted with the business of legislation, what would not have been done by a body representing and really responsible to the entire people. The nation that made so majestic a movement as the splendid simultaneous rising in arms of the Volunteer army in Ireland, in 1779, to defend their native land from invasion, and preserve her to the British crown, could not fail to have delegated worthy representatives of their patriotism and magnanimity, had the right of constitutional election been as free to them as they merited. And majestic as was this movement, it was even surpassed in splendour and true dignity by the conduct of the Irish people after their triumph in 1782 the moral greatness evidenced by the moderation and temper with which they bore that triumph. The immortal Grattan thus speaks of it: (vol. 2, of his life by his son.)

Mr. Grattan

"There are two days in the Irish history that I can never on the conduct of the forget—the one, that in which we gained our freedom. How great the triumph! how moderate! how well it was borne-with what dignity, and with what absence of vulgar triumph! The other was the day we lost our parliament. It was a savage act, done by a set of assassins who were brought into the House to sell the country and themselves: they did not belong to Ireland; some were soldiers, all were slaves! Everything was shame, and hurry, and base triumph!"

It has been, perhaps, too great a concession on our parts to condescend to consider at all the insulting objection as to Ireland's incapacity for self-government. Yet we do not regret the time we have given to it, as thus an opportunity has been afforded of summing up the good deeds of the certainly defective, and occasionally very corrupt—but still more calumniated, parliament of Ireland.

Unable, thus, to find in the history of the past any Incapacity not proved justification for Ireland's deprivation of her legislature, the against legislature, the land. next question is, whether there be any compensating advantages in the existing state of things. This is matter for another chapter.

CHAPTER II.

If the existing system by which the laws that bind Ire- if Union land are made by a parliament sitting in another country, land, where and so little representing her, be the best, its benefits results? should assuredly be obvious; or, at any rate, not difficult to be shown and proved. Has the commerce of Ireland flourished under this system? Have her manufactures spread and increased? Is capital abundant? Are public burthens comparatively lighter than before the Union? What is the condition of the people?

The two first of our queries will be found most suf- Reference to ficiently and irrefutably answered in the negative, in the in Appendix viz., "Com-Addenda to article No. 4, of the Appendix. There it is mercial in incident. shown, on the indisputable authority of figures, from docu-

ments authenticated by the opponents of Repeal themselves, that commerce and manufactures have much and seriously declined.

Commerce and manufactures declined.

The only asserted prosperity is that of the linen-trade, and its condition in Belfast is the only case cited. Were the assertion perfectly established, there still would be little thereby proven for the general and greater prosperity of Ireland since the Union. The trade prospered before that measure. If it have in any degree bettered itself since, is nothing to be allowed for the number of years that have since elapsed? True, it is attempted to be maintained, that had not the Union occurred, the two parliaments would have so differed in their views of commercial policy, as in all probability to lead to a system of mutual prohibitions, and that thus we should lose our best customers, the English, for our linens. The simple answer to this is, that England has taken our linens because they suited her in quality and price, better than she could provide herself elsewhere. Any person who will read the historical facts detailed in the article on "Commercial Injustices," already referred to, in the Appendix, will be slow to believe that England would do towards us what no country ever yet did towards another, namely, make us a compliment of her custom to her own prejudice and injury.

Want of capital.

Even from the mouths of Unionists our miserable deficiency as to capital may be gathered. Their commonest outcry against constitutional agitation in Ireland is, that it prevents what Ireland so much wants, according to them, namely, British capital, from entering the country and giving employment to the people.

Drains of money from Ireland. According to the evidence giving before the Committee on Exchanges, in 1804, the absentee-drain from Ireland was then no more than two millions; it is now generally admitted to be about four millions, and by many rated

higher. A couple of sessions ago it was computed by Lord Cloncurry, (speaking in the House of Lords,) at six millions and a-half; and his assertion has never been so much as questioned.

This drain of capital, then, has much increased since the Union. At present, too, there is a revenue-drain amounting to many hundred thousand pounds, and in some years exceeding a million. This goes to England, and is there applied by the British Chancellor of the Exchequer according to his discretion. Before the Union the government establishments in Ireland required the greater part of our revenue, and the remainder was subject to the control and disposition of the Irish parliament. On these items and that of the money sent to purchase British manufactures in articles we used to manufacture at home, there cannot be a less amount of drain from Ireland at present than from nine to ten millions, one-half of which drain did not exist in 1799.

To the Appendix we again refer for a full answer to the Great inquery respecting the comparative state of our public burthens since thens before and since the Union. The article on the the Union. Taxation Injustice will be found to give that answer. We No. 6.) may content ourselves here with stating, that whereas, by the report of the Finance Committee of 1815, the Irish taxation is declared to have increased from 1801, in the proportion of 23 to 10, while the British only as 211 to 10; the remission of taxation since then (viz., since 1814-15) has been, according to parliamentary paper 573 of 1843, £45,549,683 for Great Britain, and only £2,416,981 for Ireland; or, in the proportion of nearly nineteen parts for the former, to one for the latter!*

^{*} We should have been in a condition to carry the account down in exact and precise figures to the present year, but that some returns, specially moved for by an Irish member, for this purpose, last June, in the House of

Our prospective state is still worse—for whereas before the Union we were liable only for our own debt of twenty-three millions at the utmost, and any surplus which should remain after defraying the charge on that and other public charges, might be applied to the reducing of our burthens; the case now is, that if our revenue were to increase a thousandfold, our having been made liable equally with England for the whole of her enormous debt of between seven and eight hundred millions, would prevent us from receiving the benefit of one shilling in the way of reduction of taxation; unless, indeed, Great Britain should choose to relieve herself; when she would do so with our money, and, as we have seen before, in a proportion far exceeding that in which she would relieve us!

Mortgage of Ireland for England's debt.

State of the people.

The next query which we have enunciated at the beginning of this chapter is: What is the condition of the people of Ireland?

To this let the Reports of Parliamentary Commissions

supply the answers.

The Poor Law Enquiry Commission reported in 1834, that the destitute in Ireland amounted to two millions and a quarter!

Thirty-four years of the operation of a statute asserted to have worked extraordinary benefits to Ireland, and at the end of them, nearly one-fourth of the people of Ireland paupers! One human being in every four a beggar!

The Census Commission of 1841 bore witness that 36 per cent. of the town population, and 45 per cent. of the rural population, were in utter destitution!

Commons, have been, notwithstanding that the motion was allowed to pass, withheld: a specimen of the kind of attention which is given to Irish matters.

However, in the article above alluded to, will be found a sufficiently accurate calculation, derived from other sources.

The mean of these two fractions is over 40 per cent.—that is to say: that after forty-one years of the operation of a statute asserted to have worked extraordinary benefits to Ireland, more than two-fitths of the people of Ireland are in miserable want!

Lord Devon's Commission (Landlord and Tenant Enquiry) reported in 1845, that "the agricultural labourers of Ireland suffer the greatest privations and hardships;" that "they depend upon precarious and casual employment for subsistence;" that "they are badly housed, badly fed, badly clothed, and badly paid for their labour;" that "it would be imposssible to describe adequately the sufferings and privations which the cottiers and labourers, and their families, endure;" that "their cabins are seldom a protection against the weather;" that "a bed or a blanket is a rare luxury;" and that "nearly in all, their pig and their manure-heap constitute their only property;" that "a large proportion of the entire population comes within the designation of agricultural labourers, AND ENDURE SUFFER-INGS GREATER THAN THE PEOPLE OF ANY OTHER COUNTRY IN EUROPE HAVE TO SUSTAIN!!!"

And this after forty-five years of the operation of a statute asserted to have worked extraordinary benefits to Ireland!!!

But it is said, that passing the economic view of the Asserted benefits of question, the people have been benefitted, as they have a general nature. got Catholic emancipation, parliamentary reform, and municipal reform.

The question we have already started, namely, what Would not such meamay be the grounds for supposing that the Irish parliament sures have been passed would not have enacted those measures, had it continued, by an Irish Parliament? must first be settled, ere we attribute them to the influence of the Union. In our appendix, in the article No. 3, treating of Irish parliaments, no less than four steps

towards the entire enfranchisement of Catholics are shewn to have occurred within twenty years up to and including 1793. But for the madness of the United Irishmen, this among other beneficial measures, would have gone on to consummation; but the secret conspirings, and at length, the wild and mad outburst of rebellion, of which these parties were guilty, baffled the fortunes of Ireland, and gave a fearful advantage to her unscrupulous enemies, not only to stop the career of good legislation, but to trample upon the hopes as well as the rights of the Irish people, and give what almost seemed a security of permanency to their tyrannous dominion over that people, by the destruction of the Irish parliament, and the subjection of Ireland, absolutely and unlimitedly, to the will and pleasure of a legislature of strangers.

Great defects and injustices in the measures of parliamentary and municipal reform that have been flung to us.

For the monstrous inequalities and injustices that marked our "reform bill," as compared with the measure of reform conceded to Great Britain in 1832, we refer to the 1st article in the Appendix. They are beginning now to be so generally, nay, universally admitted, that it would be a waste of time to repeat here the facts that will be found in the reference we have just given.

Municipal reform has been indeed given us, but in what manner and degree? England and Scotland had it for years before us, and our petitions on the subject were contemptuously rejected. At length, as a bone would be thrown to a dog, a scanty and insultingly limited measure was, as it were, flung to us.

In England the simple fact of being rated to the poor and borough rate, were it only at one shilling, constitutes a man a burgess. In Ireland he must be rated at ten pounds a year, under a valuation known to be considerably lower than the real value; the consequence of which is, that in Dublin, for instance, a man must occupy a tenement worth nearly twenty pounds a year, to be entitled to be a burgess.

In Liverpool or Bristol one tax is all that is needed to be paid to ensure the municipal franchise. In Ireland all local taxes must be paid, in no case less than nine in any ward in Dublin, and in some exceeding that amount. Again, the English municipalities retain the right of naming to the important office of the shrievalty in their respective localities. This is denied to the Irish, the appointment being vested in the government.

These three measures—namely, Catholic emancipation, Yet we do not owe parliamentary reform, and municipal reform, limited and these meainsultingly restricted as the two latter are, and practically tish good will, but to neutralized as the former has been, by the exclusion of agitation. Catholics from all but a very few places of honor and emolument, were yet not free and voluntary grants from the Imperial Parliament, but confessedly and indisputably wrung from that parliament by agitation. If, then, Ireland, with so small an influence over legislation as her one hundred members, sitting in another country with 553 strangers, was yet able to compel some measures of good, however defective, what would she not have been able to accomplish and obtain from a parliament sitting at home, all composed of Irishmen, and girt round by Irish influences?

The only other measure of importance*—and it certainly Poor Laws. is one of awful importance—enacted for Ireland since the Union, is that of Poor Laws. In the present state of that measure—the bankruptcy of boards of guardians—the impossibility of collecting the rate without bloodshed—the deep indignation and execration of the people at the conduct of the poor law officials—and the redundancy of beggars

^{*} Mention is omitted designedly in the text, of the Bequests and Colleges Acts. As there are yet some parties in Ireland not ready to join the Irish people in an entire denunciation of these acts, it is thought better not to touch upon them, the more especially as at the best they could not operate for immediate physical improvement.

If good an Irish parliament would long ago have adopted them. even where the workhouses are overflowing, not even the most hardy unionist will make much boast on this score. Opinions differ in Ireland as to the advisability of any poor laws; and one of the first and most important discussions of an Irish parliament would inevitably be upon that question. We are not now called upon to discuss it, but there is no assertion of ours that we have stronger grounds for making, or on which we so little dread contradiction, than that this discussion would have been twenty or thirty years ago entered upon in parliament at home, the public mind in Ireland having, for at least that period, been occupied with the subject, while no attention was given to it in the British parliament until within the last ten years.

The Church Temporalities grievance. Had we had a domestic legislature during at least the period last-mentioned, it is impossible but that the monstrous "church grievance" should have been abated in Ireland. The commissioners of public instruction reported in the year 1834, that there were but 800,000 episcopalian Protestants in Ireland. It is well known that this account was at any rate not under-stated, and that it included every man, woman, and child that could by any possibility be put in the episcopalian ranks. Yet these 800,000 (diminished now in number, as is generally believed) have a church establishment magnificently provided for, at the expense of six millions and upwards of Catholics! So monstrous an injustice could not have endured a year had the Irish people had a reformed parliament at home.

Article No. 7, in the Appendix, deals with some of the details of this monstrous grievance.

Confessions of the English press as to the non-efficacy of the Union for good.

It is not many months since the press of England, without distinction of party, under the pressure of threatening circumstances from abroad, teemed with declarations that something must be done for Ireland, to make the people

attached to the Union! This confession, of itself, establishes a case against the measure in question. Unfortunately for its defenders, the people of Ireland will trust no longer to words and promises. In 1834, the King, Lords, and Commons, united in a solemn declaration to Ireland, that, while they never would consent to Repeal, they would redress her grievances, and do for her all that she required, short of giving her back the power of making her own laws. The leader of the Repeal agitation felt, that Promises after so solemn a declaration from the higher powers in the depended upon. state, a refusal to give them the opportunity of redeeming their promises, would hereafter enable them to charge on the Irish people themselves, the disappointment of the hopes and the non-alleviation of the miseries of these latter. He abated the agitation—the people acquiesced in the experiment-six long years were given for the redemption of these solemn engagements, and six long years definitively proved that they were made in fraud and deceit, and that the people of Ireland had no hope save in their own exertions.

There are then neither facts on which to rest a belief Keither facts then that our deprivation of the power of managing our own nor proaffairs has been palliated by any benefits resulting from the palliate the evils of the Union: nor are there promises on which trust or hope can be placed for the future. The only consideration then which could remain to delay us from demanding our legislative independence, would be, if there were truth in the assertions of our opponents, that whatever evils we may suffer from the Union, worse would result from its repeal.

We shall consider this in the next chapter.

CHAPTER III.

Usual objections made to Irish legislative independence.

In considering the objections commonly urged to the restoration of her parliament to Ireland, we shall take those of least plausibility first; accordingly, we take the assertion, that the Repeal would lead to Catholic ascendency.

Catholic ascendancy.

There is a guarantee given against this by all the declarations and acts of the Catholics of Ireland. addresses, declarations, resolutions, speeches, every conceivable vehicle of human thought and human purpose, that have been adopted by even a section of that body, have uniformly, where at all referring to religious matters, declared our desire and demand for that entire liberty of conscience, which consists not merely in the permission to each man to worship his God in the face of day in the manner that he thinks best, or in opening the way to public station and employment, but in the entire abolition of all manner of compulsory payments by the members of one form of Christianity to the pastors, teachers, and support of any other. The Catholic prelates and clergy of the second order in Ireland, have availed themselves of every opportunity to record their coincidence in these sentiments with the laity of their communion, and have continually added a declaration that they would not consent to be connected with the state. History is much too replete with instances of the evils that such connexion occasioned to the Catholic church, to make us desire to see the cause of those evils brought into activity again. WE, CATHOLICS, ARE BOUND THEN BY OUR CONVICTIONS, WE ARE BOUND BY OUR MOST SOLEMN AND THOUSAND-FOLD REPEATED DE-CLARATIONS, NEVER TO SEEK FOR RELIGIOUS ASCENDANCY, AND NEVER TO ACCEPT IT WERE IT EVEN OFFERED; AND WE SHOULD BE UTTERLY FAITHLESS, AND FOR EVER DIS-

GRACED, IF WE EVER SHRUNK FROM THE STRICTEST INTER-PRETATION OF THOSE ENGAGEMENTS.

The Protestants of Ireland would have the additional guarantee of a nearly altogether Protestant house of lords, and of the influence of the immense proportion of territorial influence which is in the hands of the members of that creed.

They would further have the guarantee of what takes place in Catholic countries abroad. In most of them indeed, the Catholic religion is the religion of the state: but has been made so by no new enactment, being a matter of old institution. But in none of them is there any species of political exclusion whatsoever on account of difference of faith; and if the Protestant inhabitants have to pay towards Catholic purposes, inasmuch as a portion of the produce of the general taxes in those countries is devoted to such purposes by the government, they have at least the comfort of knowing that their Catholic neighbour, enjoying no exemption from taxation, pays equally indirectly with them, but fully as much towards Protestant purposes, the government making ample allocation for these last, as well as for the former. Regenerated Ireland would go a step beyond this; and having in her adversity made experience of the voluntary system, and found it admirable in ensuring zealous clergymen and attached flocks, would retain it in her prosperity, and set a brilliant example for the world's imitation.

This dread of Catholic ascendancy is an honest but most unreasoning and ungenerous fear with some, while with others it is a pretext and a bugbear.

The next objection we shall notice, contains something Yorkshire like what logicians call an argumentum ad absurdum. and Lan-"Yorkshire," it is said, "and Lancashire have no parlia- Ireland. ments; what greater right has Ireland to a separate legis-

lature than either of them?" "She is," add the broachers of this argument, "an integral portion of the British empire, just as they are." This can be dismissed in very few words. Both of the counties named are physically, as well as politically, portions of England, having the same population, manners, religion, laws, and history. Ireland is, physically, most distinct from England, a sea rolling between them, a population preserving a total distinctness of race and religion, considerably distinct in manners, and having a history which is nothing but a record of fortunes most distinct and different from those of the sister country. Seven centuries of connexion have failed to produce an identification of the people of the two countries, and forty-five years of united legislation have still left glaring discrepancies in their respective amounts of rights and privileges.

The people of Yorkshire are not compelled to pay to a church to which they do not belong; the people of Ireland are. Yorkshire is represented in the united parliament, and so is Lancashire, in a manner far more proportioned to its population, size, &c. than Ireland is with regard to hers. The article No. 1 in the Appendix, before referred to, will shew the reader this disproportion. If the differences we have glanced at were removed—if Ireland were upon an equality with Yorkshire or Lancashire, as to franchises, representation, freedom from taxation to the church of the minority, &c. &c., then the argument sought to be derived from their case might be taken into consideration, although still one easily to be refuted. The fact is, that it would be best treated by pushing the principle involved in it to its legitimate results, and insisting that if centralization is to prevail with regard to the management of the legislative affairs of Ireland, it ought also to prevail with regard to the municipal affairs of Dublin, and by a parity of reasoning, to those of Liverpool, Bristol, &c.,

which, if these theories be right, would all be better managed by one body sitting in London, than as at present by the local municipalities in each!

The next objection is, that an Irish parliament would be would an Irish parliament too democratic; yet the repealers look for nothing beyond ment be too democratic? what the reformers of England desire. Like them, they do certainly desire a full and free representation of the people—vote by ballot, to protect the poor or dependent voter, and short parliaments to make representatives more accountable; but they are devoted to the present constitutional monarchy, and are far less hostile to a house of peers as a state institution, than are the people and middle classes of England. No man who has watched and compared the speeches, &c. of the liberals of Great Britain and of Ireland respectively, can fail to have been struck with the far greater tendency of the former towards jacobinism, than of the latter.

A most certain means of preventing the spread of extreme democracy in Ireland would be, by the wealthier and the titled classes putting themselves at the head of the popular movement. This once done, and done heartily, they would soon find their legitimate influence far more than sufficient to check the tendencies so dreaded, and to keep the popular mind within the limits that the most timid could desire.

The next matter put forward to discountenance the A longer trial to the proposition of repeal is, the vague and general assurance, Union. that although the Union may not yet have done much good to Ireland, it assuredly will, if allowed a longer trial; and the case of Scotland is cited as one in point. "For a considerable time she improved indeed slowly," is confessed, but it is triumphantly added, that at length she did improve, and ere the end of the century "transcendantly flourished in consequence of her union with Great

Britain." It will not require much delay to dispose of this argument.

The principal supporter of the assertion of Scotland's greater improvement, was the right honorable Henry Dundas—himself a Scotchman—and the proofs he brought forward (in his speech of February 7, 1799,) were these: "That Scotland had for sale," as he phrased it, "1,000,000 yards of linen, her staple manufacture in 1706; and in 1796, 23,000,000."

But Ireland, according to John Foster, and the hand-loom report (of 1838), exported:—

Years.	Yards.	Value.
1706	530,838	£32,750
1783	16,039,705	1,069,313
1796	46,705,319	3,113,687

Mr. Dundas boasted of the increase of the Glasgow population in 92 years,—from 14,800 to 77,000—but did not extend his boast to the general population of Scotland: on which the increase as compared with that in Ireland was, (according to Mr. Pitt's statement in 1799,) as follows:—

POPULATION.					
YEARS.	SCOTLAND.	IRELAND.			
1700	1,000,000	1,500,000			
1799	1,500,000	4,500,000			

[•] Again Lord Sheffield, in his "Observations on the Trade, &c. of Ireland," 1785, states, at page 284, that the Irish exports to England alone, on a five years' average, ending 1783, were in value £2,301,444, while Chalmers, in his "Comparative Estimate of Scotland and England," p. 229, printed at London, 1794, gives four years' average of Scotland to all the world, at only £802,345.

But the fact is, that even could Scotland be shown to have increased from her Union up to 1800, in a greater proportion than Ireland during the same time, the comparison would not be fair; as the previous condition of Scotland had been so unnaturally depressed, and unjustly, cruelly, and violently interfered with by England.

The Parliament of Scotland had not courage enough to attempt resistance against the legislative interferences of England with Scotch enterprize and commerce; nor indeed was that Parliament much better than a mere registering council of the will of the crown. Peers and commoners sat together in the same house; and the royal prerogative of adding indefinitely to the former class, ensured the government a majority. Moreover, no proposition could be discussed or at all introduced, without the previous sanction of the "lords of articles," (as they were called,)—a small body who were the absolute nominees and dependents of the government.

Now, was this the case with Ireland before her union? Was her condition "unnaturally depressed?" Was she "unjustly, cruelly, and violently interfered with?" And was her parliament prevented from applying remedies to her evils, by its restricted legislative powers, and entire subjection to the will and power of the English government?

To these three questions the following are the answers: Up to 1780—82, (the period within which freedom of foreign and colonial trade, and legislative independence, were yielded to Ireland,) Ireland's condition was indeed unnaturally depressed and interfered with—and her parliament was in a very great measure—but by no means so entirely as was the Scotch parliament—restricted, limited, and held in subjection by the English government.

Article No. 4 in the appendix, can be referred to for

details of these injustices in commercial matters; and article No. 3, for a specification of the parliamentary interferences.

After the period of 1780-2, although England still kept her own market practically closed against us, and had taken advantage of the first warmth of our gratified feelings to engage us to restrict to her own colonies our West India trade, yet we had considerable liberty of commercial interchange and tariff arrangements with foreign countries, and entire liberty as to the internal encouragements and premiums which, in accordance with the ideas of the age, we might and did consider advisable.

Our parliamentary liberty was still subject to this restriction, that the shape in which any measure was to pass, should be given it in the English Privy Council, and thus the royal assent made known beforehand. We could however entirely reject a measure, although not permitted substantially to frame or alter it. This saved us from enforced legislation; and the sturdy independence of 1780–82 had left such an impression on the minds of our English governors, that until the very close of the century, when wholesale bribery and intimidation had sapped the foundations of our parliament, and the latter was tottering to its speedy fall, no important injustice was attempted by means of this reserved restriction.

tures, with such rapidity, within the same period, (viz., from 1780 to 1800,) as had Ireland."

And abundant corroborative testimony might be here adduced, but that of so strong an advocate of the Union ought to be the most weighty with its present supporters.

The cases then of Scotland and Ireland were widely different with regard to their respective conditions at the time of their respective legislative unions with England. And we have already seen, with reference to the important trade in "linen," one of importance to both the former countries, and shall, in dealing with the subject of our commercial history, (article No. 4, Appendix,) see with reference to other branches of industry, that Ireland's progress under her own parliament, notwithstanding the cruel "restrictions" of which she had so long to complain, was, comparatively as well as absolutely, greater than that of Scotland since 1707, under all the advantages which the latter is said to have reaped from her legislative Union in that year. And finally we must remark, that Ireland's present condition is too wretched to allow much probability of her being either able or willing to undergo a longer experiment of a Union hitherto found so disastrous.

Having disposed of the least plausible objections to Repeal, we now address ourselves to the main and only one that can really be called an argument, viz., that separate and co-ordinate legislatures in the same empire cannot work together.

Were there soundness in this, Ireland might have to The only plausible consider whether the connexion between her and Great objections. Britain were worth the deprivation of her own parliament. But soundness there is none in the argument we are dealing with, as will easily appear upon a little consideration.

First, regenev.

The assertions on the subject are four in chief:

1st.—That between two independent parliaments in the Questions of Regency. same empire, there would be differences on the question of succession to the throne, and of a regency.

2nd.—That the two parliaments might differ as to the War. necessity and support of a war.

3rd.—That in commercial matters their interests might Commerce. jar, and conflicts ensue. Finance.

4th.—That as to financial arrangements, there would be most serious differences of opinion and practice.

To the first of these objections we answer, that there exists at this moment unrepealed, an act of an Irish parliament, known in the Irish Statute Book as the 33rd Henry VIII. chap. 1, which constitutes the King of England, his heirs and successors, kings of Ireland, with all power, authority, and dignity appertaining to the kingly office in Ireland. By that act we are bound, and would be bound, until specially repealed. But we are ready to agree, as we have said in another place, that one of the articles of international treaty at the time of abrogating the legislative union should be, that the king, or regent de facto in England, should be king or regent de jure in Ireland.

Thus should we close up one source of civil war and confusion, and meantime lose no real advantage, for, after all, those who hold the purse-strings are the real governors of a country, whoever may be the person enjoying the name, style, and dignity.

Mr. Speaker Foster shall help us to answer the second allegation. In his speech in the Irish House of Commons, 11th April, 1799, (in committee on the Union Bill,) he said :-

"As to peace and war, it is to be recollected that the sole and absolute power of making either rests with the

Second, war and peace.

executive. It is the King's prerogative......But, from the balance of power to which the British constitution owes its great excellence, the executive, though vested with power to act by declaring war, is forced to apply to parliament for means to carry it on, and, therefore, must consult their opinion......Suppose the British parliament to approve a war, and that of Ireland to disapprove, the only difficulty which this difference of sentiment could create would be, that the one who disapproved might withhold its supplies until it could be induced to acquiesce. It could not, by the refusal, stand clear of the miseries, and hazards, and losses of war, because the king's declaration involves it equally with Britain."

To this we need only add, that should such hesitation occur on the part of Ireland, it would, in effect, be beneficial to the empire, as the knowledge of its likelihood would make a minister doubly cautious how he rashly involved the empire in the expense and miseries of a state of war.

But let us not pass from this point without drawing the England's immediate attention of Irishmen to this question, as it Canada, China, Mewould be affected in the recent most expensive wars of diterranear. Great Britain. We allude to those of Canada, China, Affghanisthe Mediterranean, and the N. W. frontier of India. The assembly of Lower Canada sought, by the constitutional means of limiting the supplies, to gain some influence over the conduct of the executive, in giving offices to a party in the province opposed to the opinions of the bulk of the population and of the legislature itself. Upon this the British government at home invoked the interference of the imperial parliament. The latter did interfere, and strongly. Its interference in fact amounted to a direct violation of the Canadian constitution. Still however, enough of their parliamentary liberties were left to the Canadians inviolate, to render an appeal to arms totally

inexcusable. But in blaming them for thus plunging into all the crime and misery of insurrection, we are not to save the government harmless. If the original evil had not been committed, viz., the truckling to an old ascendancy party, the long train of evils which followed would not have occurred; and the conduct of the late Sir Charles Bagot, when governor-general, since the insurrection, shews how useless all the expense and bloodshed has been, since the original concessions which the house of assembly required, viz., the giving a share in administrative offices to others besides the faction noticed, have been by him made and approved of at home, and the same policy has been followed by his successors.

The bloody struggle to obtain a five years' delay to these concessions has cost, it is said, a million and a half to the empire, in addition to the loss of life and the crimes that were committed during the brief contest. What concern had Ireland in the matter? Of what advantage to her is Canada? Of what benefit to her was the temporary triumph over the public opinion of Canada? Yet Ireland has had to pay largely out of her taxes towards these most fruitless expenses. Had she had her own parliament, England would have been left to pay the cost of her obstinacy alone. Can any Irishman say that this would not have been most right?

The war with China.

The China war originated from the practice of opium-smuggling—nearly exclusively carried on by British merchants. Ireland had no concern in the iniquitous traffic. The Chinese government themselves were deeply guilty by the nearly universal connivance of its ministers and agents, until their increasing extortion of enormous fees forced a rupture. That government is therefore not to be excused; but neither is the British—the latter having sanctioned the proceedings of the smugglers for the sake of the

Indian revenue. The war that has resulted, has cost the empire about two millions of money, *Irish* as well as British, and this while Ireland had neither share nor profit in the illegal traffic of which we have spoken. Her own parliament would have protected her pocket in this instance also.

The interference by England in the disputes between two barbarians in the Mediterranean—an interference that has resulted only in the weakening and damaging the strength of the abler barbarian of the two—namely Mahomet Ali—(who, if encouraged and supported, might have been of considerable use in helping to counteract and baffle the encroachments of Russia)—without adding any real strength to the feebler sultan, or in any way increasing the stability of his tottering throne, occasioned much waste of the resources of the empire. Here again her parliament would have saved Ireland harmless.

Her disgust at thus being made, against her will, accessary to what Talleyrand would have designated as the "worse than crime—the blunder," of the Mediterranean intermeddlings, is very considerably enhanced by the eruel sufferings to which the Christian population of Syria have been subjected in Syria, since Mahomet Ali was forced by England to abandon them to their Turkish persecutors.

The plunderings, treacheries, disasters, and massacres in Affghanistan, might have never occurred, had the reckless hand of the British minister been stayed by the involuntary prudence to which he would have been compelled by the refusal of the Irish parliament to involve Ireland in an unjust war.

In all these cases, if England had chosen to go on single-handed, no danger to the empire from invasion of the neutral portion of it, could of course have arisen, as neither Canadians, Chinese, Egyptians, or Affghans, would be

likely to attempt a descent on the Irish coast. And in the case of war with a power able to make such an attempt, Ireland's previous neutrality would not of course save her from the necessity of defending her own shores, and the very attack would make her, however unwillingly, a party to the full in the contest.

The remarks we have made on the foregoing instances will, of course, apply to the war at this moment progressing in the territories of the Sikhs, adjoining Affghanistan. Some of the pretences and defences set up against the impugners of this war, are not without speciousness; but when we find a continual encroachment and acquisition attempted to be accounted for only by "the necessity of the case," grave doubts will arise in the mind, even when the plausibility is greatest.

Meantime so much is certain—viz: that serious burdens are thus entailed upon the imperial treasury, to which Ireland contributes of course. Were justice observed, Great Britain, the country that draws the profit of these acquisitions, should bear the cost, and Ireland be exempted—and this justice her own parliament would ensure to the latter.

Alleged possible commercial differences.

Come we now to the third prediction of the mutual incompatibility of separate and co-ordinate legislatures in the British empire, viz.—that in commercial matters there would be jarring and differences.

If the freely chosen representatives of the Irish people should differ in opinion with the English parliament in these respects, nothing could be more right than that the opinions and will of the former should prevail in Ireland. If England apprehended any evil from the commercial policy adopted by the Irish legislature, she still could guard her own ports against Ireland as well as against foreign countries. We now suffer cruelly, whensoever

an occasion arises when England, in her commercial negotiations with foreign powers, conceives she can benefit her own interests at the expense of ours. Thus our linen trade was recklessly imperilled in negotiations with France, and our provision trade offered as a sacrifice in an attempted treaty with Portugal; and we are not left at the mercy of foreign powers alone, but every little colony is allowed to deal with us as it likes. Early in the year 1843, our provision merchants had to make loud and utterly fruitless complaints against the conduct of the legislature of Jamaica, which suddenly raised the duties on our imports into that island, to a scale varying from 20 to 70 per cent, of increase upon their former amount. Thus, one of our only remaining manufactures, if it can be so called, was grievously injured, while the compulsion was left upon us of purchasing the higher-priced coffees and sugars of the British West Indian islands, instead of being allowed to supply ourselves with those articles cheaper from foreign colonies.

If it was right and fair that the British West Indies should not restrict themselves to Ireland for provisions, when they could be more conveniently supplied elsewhere, surely it would be right and fair that Ireland should have the power of supplying herself more conveniently elsewhere than from them, with the important article of coffee and the necessary article of sugar.

The spread of the principles of free trade is likely ere long to diminish much the chances of differences in commercial matters between countries politically independent of each other. How much more likely is it then, that the chance of differences between two countries politically connected, as, in some shape or other, is likely to be the case with England and Ireland, should be diminished? And where a case of difference might possibly arise, England

would have this advantage on her side, that Ireland could not afford, for any ordinary matter, or even for many extraordinary points, to risk being excluded from the markets of her rich and powerful neighbour; and so would be inclined rather to concede than to resist.

Jealousy of Irish possible prosperity.

With many, the pretext we are considering is but a cloak for their jealous apprehension of Ireland's rivalry in commerce and manufactures. If this intolerant class are to be noticed at all, it should suffice to say, that the world is wide enough for us all; and that it is nothing other than a blasphemy against Divine Providence, to suppose that the fair and legitimate prosperity of one country can ever be an injury to that of another. But, in truth, to dread rivalry from Ireland in these particulars, is—irrespective of the considerations we have just mentioned absurd, if only on account of the remote possibility of such an event. Were all the capital of Ireland now drained from her to be at once restored, and doubled, trebled in amount, it still would be impossible that she could for several years rival England in manufactures generally. One or two, or even three particular branches might succeed, and in some measure compete with English products of the same description, but she should still supply herself for the major part from England; and what competition she might be able to establish would, in fact, be a benefit to the English consumer, as it would necessarily lower prices to him.

Ireland needs manufactures. Humanity requires that new sources of industry and employment should be opened up in Ireland. Employment on the land has altogether failed, as it must ever fail, as a means of supporting the entire population of a country. The commonest complaint we hear is, that the land is overstocked, that the wretched peasantry of Ireland, having no means of subsistence other than by the occupation of land, bid, as it were for *life and death*, against each

other, at the land-auctions, (as they are aptly termed,) which take place on the ejectment of a tenant, or dropping of a lease; and that thus an almost irresistible temptation is put in the way of the Irish landlord or agent to demand exorbitant rents. The best, because most natural remedy for this state of things, and consequently the best preventative of the horrid land-murders which result from it, would be the restoration of manufactures and commerce to Ireland; whereby the surplus population would have opened to them other and abundant sources of employment and subsistence.

On the matter of the fourth prediction, viz., that of Alleged possible finanpossible "financial" disagreements, we need not long cial disagreements. delay. Article No. 6, in the Appendix, will have made the reader acquainted with the injustices we have suffered, and the grievances we have to complain of, under the financial arrangements at the time of the Union and in 1816. It will there be seen what a heavy sum we would be entitled, in strict right, to demand, as no more than a small compensation for the unjust drains of forty-five years. But that article also contains the outlines of a plan by which relief could be given to Ireland, and yet no heavy additional payment demanded from Great Britain, either as compensation to her injured sister, or provision for the burthens which ought justly to be transferred from the shoulders of the latter. We need not enter here into the details of the scheme, which are sufficiently explained in the Appendix,* to which we direct attention—but may content ourselves with stating that the simple principle of the arrangement there proposed is, that as Ireland is made to contribute so heavily to the imperial expenditure, a

^{*} The plan in question is not put forward as adopted by the Repeal party, or even as in favour with any considerable portion of them, but as a suggestion to induce discussion and consideration of future financial arrangements.

corresponding proportion of that expenditure should be allotted to her. This could be done by sharing the government establishments more equally between the two countries, stationing a portion of the imperial navy in our admirable harbours, and allotting to us the special support of that portion—be it as large as England might choose dealing similarly with the army, with the ordnance, the civil establishments of government, &c. &c. Thus, without the remission of one tax to Ireland, without the additional exclusive imposition of one upon Great Britain, the former would be materially benefitted; and as her prosperity increased, she would speedily be able to bear a far higher proportion of the imperial expenditure, than can now be wrung from her poverty and destitution.

Mr. Speaker Fester on these points. Cussion by confining ourselves to the simple recording of these points. in it. We have already quoted a portion of those arguments, and now subjoin further quotations from the same speech :-

"Theory, and theory alone, says, that the separate parliaments may disagree. But there is no one argument you can apply as shewing a consequent necessity of consolidating them, that will not apply much stronger for the consolidation of the two houses in each; and the same arguments will all further apply, with equal strength, to consolidate the two houses with the king, for fear of the national concerns being impeded by disagreement. Thus your arguments will end in the absurdity, that you must consolidate the three estates of each kingdom into one, for fear of a difference of opinion between them, arising from the exercise of their free judgments; that you must abandon the glorious constitution of a mixed government which you now enjoy, and adopt that of a single monarch,

or single power, wherever it may rest, either in a monarch, an oligarchy, or a republic. But practice, which is a more steady guide than theory, tells you the reverse. In points of peace and war, the Irish parliament has never, even during centuries, differed in opinion with the British; though its power to do so has ever been as unlimited, and equally free, before as since the constitution of 1782. No! interest is a sure guide to nations; and it never was, nor ever can be, the interest of the smaller number to differ from the larger-of the weaker to differ from the more powerful on such a matter; and it is no rash prediction to say, that good sense, and even necessity, must soon reconcile the differing body, if unfortunately such an instance should occur.

"But if we look into the principles of the British constitution, we shall find there abundant reason not only to reject arguments of such a theory as would consolidate the legislatures, but even not to adopt such measure were it practicable. That constitution was not the work of one man, or of one age: it has gradually softened down in the course of centuries into that perfection we now have-more by the collision of circumstances than by the efforts of human wisdom or foresight. That collision has imperceptibly formed a balance in its constituent parts, which, by the power of mutual checks, keeps each within its bounds, and preserves the whole in its true perfection.

"That balancing check is the true principle to which it owes its preservation-destroy it, and the whole is gone! Is it wrong, then, to look for similar good effects from the same balancing principle in the connexion between the legislatures of the two islands, as in the connexion between the component parts of each legislature?"

Not being aware of other objections of any plausibility Summary and conto the re-constitution of Ireland's independent parliament— clusions.

for the smaller fry of insulting prophecies of the corruptness of the Irish parliament,* &c. &c., we shall not condescend to notice; there remains but for us to sum up the matter of these three chapters, and then leave our readers to the consideration of the facts adduced in the Appendix. The summary need but to be brief.

Ireland plainly did not injure any other country by her legislative independence; neither was she incapable of managing her own affairs; therefore her case justified neither of the qualifications stated in the beginning of our first chapter, as being held to limit the application to a form of government in a country, of the test derived from the amount of individual liberty retained in the latter. Therefore Ireland being much more limited in that particular than is England, has been so limited unjustly.

We then considered were there any palliatives for this injustice—and we found her revenue not increased since the Union, her commerce declined, her manufactures gone, her people starving! herself in a position of great inferiority in all points of political importance, as compared with England; therefore we found no palliatives for the deprivation of her rights and liberties.

We thirdly examined whether their restoration would be attended with worse evils than a continuance of their deprivation. We found that danger could not result to freedom of conscience; that the alleged danger of wild democracy was a bugbear; that the example of Scotland's condition since her Union actually told for our argument, as her improvement had been far less than ours under our enfranchised parliament; and her state previous to her Union had been very dissimilar from ours before 1800. We finally examined into all the branches of the attempted

^{*} The restored Irish parliament would, of course, be reformed in its constitution. The rotten borough system is condemned in both countries.

argument of incompatibility of separate parliaments; and we found that divisions of opinion were likely only as to unnecessary wars-most unlikely in commercial matters -and easily obviable as to financial matters; and, above all, as to the important question of the succession to the throne.

From these premises we fairly and logically conclude, that no such evils are to be apprehended from the restoration of our parliament as warrant our being denied it for even one additional month; and therefore we claim and demand the restoration of that parliament.

The history of Great Britain is not without instances of Opportunity for Great magnanimity and generosity, even at expense and loss britain to herself. But here is a case in which the exhibition of and fear not." those qualities, so far from causing a loss, must result in immense and continually increasing advantage. At present she holds us but by force, and our wretched poverty makes us unable to contribute to the exigencies of the empire, save to a miserable amount, although our proportion of imposts is but little less than hers. Let her concede our rightful demands, and she, at once, and for ever, secures our warm and energetic affections; and, as our wealth and prosperity increase, so will our money aid most abundantly and heartily be augmented. Concession now would be gratefully received, and impose a debt which our gratitude would struggle hard to repay. Concession in any of the storms and dangers that now darken the political horizon, and which may, within a few months, burst upon England, will lose half its merits from our bitter experience of its

Whatever England may do, let Ireland but continue the Whatever noble, peaceful struggle in which she is engaged, and as-let Irishmen be true to suredly success must crown her efforts. Let Irishmen be I

denial when she was strong, and our knowledge that we

shall then only owe it to her fears and her distress.

but true to the high destinies before them—let them persevere resolutely but patiently—ardently but peacefully—and be assured, that as their cause is good and holy, so if their efforts to advance it be kept within the bounds of order and of religion, the blessing of heaven will descend upon it and upon them; and the past sufferings and miseries of Ireland will be lost to the view on the page of history, in the dazzling and transcendant brightness of her future fortunes.

APPENDIX No. I.

THE

"INADEQUATE REPRESENTATION GRIEVANCE."

On this subject we copy the greater part of a Report drawn up by Daniel O'Connell, M.P., in April, 1840,* and shall then proceed with some additional matter.

Report of the Committee of the National Association of Ireland, on the number of Representatives to which Ireland is entitled.

The Committee to whom it was referred to consider the injustice done to Ireland by reason of the inadequate number of her representatives, have agreed to the following Report.

They have divided the subject referred to, into two distinct

branches:

1st—That which relates to the gross or general number of

representatives.

2nd—That which relates to a comparative statement of the representation of the English, when contrasted with the Irish counties and towns.

As to the first, your Committee deem it right to bring the attention of the Association to the mode in which the number of Irish members to sit in the united parliament was calculated by Lord Castlereagh—and for this purpose we refer to the scale drawn up by him, and exhibited to the Irish parliament.

^{*} It is a significant commentary on English indifference to our wants, that the gross injustices exposed by Mr. O'Connell in the above statements in 1840, as previously in 1832, remain to this day unaltered.

It is as follows :--

					I	Members.
For	POPULATIO	N,		• • •		202
66	EXPORTS,	•••		•••		100
66	IMPORTS,		• • •	• • •		93
66	REVENUE,			• • •		39
						434

The mean of these quantities gave $108\frac{1}{2}$; so that, according to Lord Castlereagh's own calulation, the right of Ireland exceeded 108 members. No excuse was given for striking off the eight—of these Ireland was defrauded without pretext or argument, and reduced to the number of 100.—Instead of striking off the 8, and leaving the 100, he might as well, in point of principle, have struck off the 100 and left the 8!

This was a glaring injustice; but it was considerably aggravated by reason of the total fallacy of the scale adopted by Lord Castlereagh. For example, he took the population of Ireland as being only two-fifths of the population of England, there being then no actual enumeration in either country—but the subsequent enumerations have proved that Ireland, instead of only two-fifths of the population of England, had, in fact, two-thirds—so that the allowance of Lord Castlereagh, on the above scale of 202 members, ought, in fact, to have been more than 300 on the score of relative POPULATION.

The second item of the scale is equally fraudulent, namely, comparative estimate of EXPORTS; that for Ireland was taken by Lord Castlereagh as only one-fifth; whereas, in fact, Ireland at that time supplied the British forces in almost every quarter of the globe, with provisions of every description, and her exports ought to have been taken at TWO-FIFTHS at the least.

The third item, the imports, were calculated as considerably below one-fifth; but they certainly were much higher, and instead of 93 members, ought, at the very lowest calculation,

have given Ireland 100; that is one-fifth.

The fourth item, of REVENUE, was perfectly fraudulent—because Ireland at that time owed a debt of only twenty-three millions—whereas England at that time owed above FOUR HUNDRED AND TWENTY-FOUR MILLIONS; the consequence is, that the interest of at least four hundred millions ought to have been deducted from the English revenue, before it was brought into a comparison with that of Ireland; and it is perfectly manifest, that in that view of it, the Irish revenue, instead of

being what LORD CASTLEREAGH called it, (one-twelfth,) was

certainly at the least one-sixth.

Your Committee are convinced that they have made these corrections much more unfavourable to Ireland than they really would have been, and they now beg leave to contrast the scale as produced by LORD CASTLEREAGH, with that which be ought to have produced, if he had any regard to the just rights of the people of Ireland.

Lord Castlereagh's Scale.	It ought to be.
Population, 2-5ths 202	2–3rds 300
Exports, 1-5th 100	2–5ths 200
Imports, less than 1-5th 93	1–5th 100
Revenue, 1-12th 39	1–6th 78
_ 434	678

The mean of the first was, as we have already shewn, 108—which was the number of members Lord Castlereagh ad-mitted Ireland ought to have; whereas, even upon the data assumed by himself, if this had been stated with any species of accuracy, the mean of the 678 would be $169\frac{1}{2}$.

Thus at the Union, if justice had been done to Ireland, she

would have obtained 169 members instead of 100.

The reason why this injustice was so readily acquiesced in by the Irish borough-mongers was, that £15,000 was paid for every borough which was extinguished by the Union, and every possible claim was made, and in general allowed, to the patronage of the expiring boroughs.

We have annexed a first and second Appendix to the present Report—the one containing the names of the persons to whom the compensation was made—and the sums—amounting al-

together to upwards of one million.

The second Appendix contains the claim of the LORD BISHOP OF OSSORY for £15,000, for the borough of Irishtown, being part of the city of Kilkenny—a claim significant of the merits by which bishops were promoted in Ireland, and of the nature of parliamentary patronage.

Your Committee respectfully submit, that Ireland has a plain and manifest right to insist upon at least 169 members in the imperial parliament; and that in the most unfavourable way against her, that the calculation could with any truth be made.

Instead of revenue, where the debt of each country was so disproportionate, the item of comparative rental should have

been introduced, and not of revenue alone, as any evidence of comparative property. This point of view was taken up by Mr. Newenham, who was a member of the Irish parliament; and having made corrections in Lord Castlereagn's tables, produced the following scale, which he demonstrated to be a much nearer approach to accuracy.

For comparative	POPULATION,			228
,,	Exports,			179
,,	Imports,			168
"	REVENUE,	• •	• •	85
,,	RENTAL,	• •	• •	186
				846

the mean of these five quantities being $169\frac{1}{z}$.—First series Repeal Reports, 1840.

We shall have again to refer to the various bases of calculation alluded to in the foregoing extract, when dealing with the question of the proportionate fiscal contributions as settled for each country at the Union. The reader will find the reference and discussion of this subject in the article No. 6 of this Appendix—the "Taxation Injustice."

Let us here consider if there may not be other data than those just stated, for estimating our proportion of representatives, were it possible to devise a good and lasting system of united legislation. Before passing altogether from Lord Castlereagh's scale, we would, however, just remark, that he himself declared his data unsatisfactory, and that they were loudly complained of in the Irish parliament. A protest on the books of the Irish peers, 26th March, 1800, has this remark: "The adjustment of the number of the Irish members has been determined without any official documents, or other authentic information."

It is an axiom of the constitution, that "taxation ought to be founded on representation." This being so, then Great Britain having more than five times our number of representatives, ought to have more than five times our taxes. But the latter is not the case—we contribute by equal taxes with her to all but about twelve millions of the annual public income. A very short detail is here necessary to show how the proportions of payments by the two countries stand, taking into consideration their respective ability.

The net income of the United Kingdom for the last two years has averaged £56,000,000 annually. Of this amount, Great Britain paid by separate taxes-viz., income tax, land and assessed taxes, and some little difference in excise duties—£12,000,000 in round numbers. fiscal ability of Ireland was estimated by Sir R. Peel, when detailing his budget in 1842, as about one-ninth of that of Great Britain. One-ninth of say £12,000,000 would be £1,330,000, which sum Ireland would have had to pay each year, (additional upon what she did pay,) had she been subjected to the taxes we have mentioned as separate taxes on Great Britain. Ireland actually paid (in credited and uncredited revenue) an average of £4,300,000. Were she then taxed to the full extent, she would pay altogether about £5,630,000, of which sum the £1,330,000 stated above, is a good deal less than one-fourth. But, for the sake of argument, taking it to be so high as one-fourth, Ireland's exemption from taxation is in that proportion, and therefore her payments are to the English payments as 3 to 4.

If the axioms of the constitution are to be respected, her exemption from taxation ought to be in the proportion of her inferiority in representation, as compared with Great Britain. In other words, as she has a less share than one-fifth in the parliamentary representation of the United Kingdom, she ought to have a less share than one-fifth of the taxation liabilities also. Or, if the exigencies

of the empire rendered it impossible to relieve her thus, her proportion of representation should be so raised as to justify her proportion of taxation liabilities. That is to say, her number of members ought to be to the British number, as 3 to 4—or 282 members for Ireland to 376 for Great Britain—total as now, 658.*

Some such alteration as this should then be made in the respective numbers of representatives possessed by the two great sections of the United Kingdom, were it possible that the legislative union could continue. But the latter is not a possibility, if for no other reason than that the bitter opposition made to the addition of five members only to our number, at the time of the reform bill, convinces, and is a powerful proof, that Great Britain would never consent to the important change we suggest in her internal constitution of her own parliament.

With reference to the second branch of the subject mentioned in the report we have quoted from, we take an excellent, though summary exposè, of the grievance it involves, from the most able speech of Mr. Smith O'Brien, M.P. for Limerick, in the House of Commons, 4th July, 1843:—

The corrupt borough of Harwich, with its population of 3,829 persons, together with the nomination borough of Ripon, possess as much influence in the legislature as the county of Tipperary, (including the members for Cashel and Clonmel,) with its population of 435,553, and its rental of £886,439. Again, compare the representation of Dorsetshire with that of the county of Galway. The area of Dorsetshire is 627,220 acres; its real property assessed to poor-rate in 1841, £735,234 per ann.; its population in 1841, 174,743 persons; the number of its members—county 3, Bridport 2, Dorchester 2,

^{*} If it should be suggested to blend the proportions of liability and fiscal ability, the relative numbers would be found 150 to 508; and if a third ingredient were added, viz. that of population, the proportions would result in 156 to 502. Thus, in any way we consider it, the present state of things is unjust.

Poole 2, Lyme Regis 1, Shaftesbury 1, Wareham 1, Weymouth 2—total 14. The area of Galway is—county 1,485,533 acres, town 25,059 acres—total 1,510,592 acres; the rental, as estimated by Griffith—county £850,000, town (excluding the value of the houses) £18,894—total rental £868,894; and if the value of the houses in the town be included, not less than £900,000 per annum. The population in 1841 was—county 422,923, town 17,275—total 440,198. Members—county 2, town 2—total members 4. In each of the particulars of area, rental, and population, Galway greatly exceeds Dorsetshire; yet Dorsetshire has 14 representatives, while Galway enjoys

only 4.....

The conclusion to be drawn from a comparison of the number of persons qualified to vote in each country, sufficiently proves, that in proportion to its population and resources, Ireland does not possess an electoral body nearly as numerous as that of England. The population of Ireland in 1841 was 8,175,238 persons. The number of electors registered between the 1st February, 1835, and the 1st February, 1843, was as follows:—Counties, 63,389; cities, 27,091; boroughs, 19,465; total, 109,945; being less by 14,332 than the number registered during the five years previous to the 1st February, 1837. But, inasmuch as this registry extends over a period of eight years, a large deduction, probably not less than one-third, ought to be made for double registries, deaths, and expiration of title. After these deductions have been made, the actual number of persons qualified to vote, cannot be assumed to be more than 80,000, or say one per cent. on the population. If property be regarded as the legitimate basis of the franchise, the number of electors is almost equally inadequate in reference to this test. Assuming the rental of Ireland to be £15,000,000 per annum, which is not far from the truth, there would not be more than one elector for every £187 10s. of rental. Now, in the first year after the Reform Act, the proportion of electors to population in England was, in counties as 1 to 24, and in boroughs and cities as 1 to 17. The number of electors in England has since that time considerably increased. In Ireland the constituency is yearly diminishing. So much for the general view. Now look at the detail. Assuming first that the parliamentary franchise ought to be commensurate with population, let us compare the number of electors in two counties of Ireland and England in which the population is nearly the same—Mayo and Lincolnshire. In Mayo, which has only two representatives, the population in 1841 was 388,887 persons. The number of electors registered between the 1st February, 1835, and the 1st February, 1843, was 1494. This number is subject to a deduction of say one-third for double registries, deaths, and loss of title. In Lincolnshire, which is represented by eleven members, the population was in 1841, 362,717 persons, the number of electors qualified to vote in 1840 was, county electors, 18,876—town electors, 3,999—total, 22,875. But if it be said that the franchise ought not to be proportionate to population, but to property, let us compare two counties in regard to rateable property. In Meath the population amounted in 1841 to 183,828 persons; the rateable rental, according to the townland valuation, which is much below the actual rent, to £527,593; the number of electors registered between the 1st of February, 1835, and 1st February, 1843, 1481, subject to deduction for double registries, deaths, and loss of qualifications. In Westmorland the population was in 1841, 56,469 persons; the real property rated to poor rate in 1841 was £266,335; the number of electors qualified to vote in 1840 was, county, 4,480; town, (Kendal,) 351; total, 4,831. Now, if Meath had a constituency as large as that of Westmorland, in proportion to the real property of each county, Meath would have about 9000 electors instead of 1481 upon the registry, of whom probably not more than 1000 are qualified to vote. Will any one who has followed me in this comparison, contend that the Irish parliamentary franchise is more liberal than that of England?

We borrow from the pages of the *Dublin Weekly Register*, an admirable illustration by the excellent proprietor of that valuable paper, of the grievance on Ireland, in comparison with Wales:—

COMPARATIVE RESOURCES OF WALES AND CORK.

In the late discussion in the corporation, Mr. O'Connell remarked that though Wales had only the one-tenth of the population of Ireland, it received an addition of six members by the arrangement under the reform bill, though all Ireland received only five. He also remarked, that the population of Cork is about equal to that of Wales, and yet that Cork had only two members, whereas Wales had twenty-eight. His observation was applied to the rural population; but an honour-

able member used it as a point against him, that Cork has altogether eight members (including those for the city and boroughs). The same honourable member adverted to the wealth of Wales, evidently implying, that if that principality had a great superiority of members, it was a distinction to which it was entitled by its superior riches. Let us see how the facts stand in this matter.

The only parliamentary paper, within our recollection, that gives an account of the relative amounts of the English, Irish, Scotch, and Welch revenue, is one published in 1832 (sessional number, 206). It gave the following totals:—

English			• • •		£42,910,280
Irish	• • •	• • •			4,329,101
Scotch			• • •	•••	5,113,353
Welch			•••		348,710

This is a very small revenue for "rich" Wales; and, small as it is, nearly one-third of the whole is made up of land and assessed taxes. There is scarcely a port in Wales deserving the name, and therefore the whole custom duty of this opulent principality amounts only to £26,139. We shall compare both excise and customs with those of Cork:—

Cork Customs		•••	• •	£263,364
Welch ditto		•••		26,139
Difference in fav	our of	Cork		237,225
Cork Excise				272,525
Welch ditto	••	. •••	•••	176,046
Difference in fav	our of	Cork	•••	96,479
Total Revenue	of. Cork	witho	out land	
or assessed tax				535,889
Total Revenue	of Wa	ales, ir	ncluding	
land and asses	sed taxe	es	•••	348,710
Difference in fav	our of	Cork	• • •	187,179

Cork is not more than a third of the area of Wales, but its powers of production greatly exceed these of the whole principality. The estimated value of the property assessed to the poor rates in Wales, in 1815, was £2,130,151. This we should

take to be much under the value of the Cork property. There were in Cork, in 1831, above 118,000 houses. Half of them at £20 a year, are worth £1,180,000 per annum; the other half, at £10 a year, are worth £590,000 per annum. Both these amounts make £1,770,000; and the landed rental cannot be of much less amount. Let us take the whole rental, however, at £3,100,000, and it is a third higher than that of Wales. It is curious to observe, too, how much beneath Cork the entire principality is in the sums raised for local purposes. In 1832, the county rates in Wales amounted only to £41,000. They are now probably £50,000; but in the last year, the county rates of Cork amounted to £110,403. Let us put all these tests of relative wealth in tabular form, the better to facilitate comparison.

	Wales.		Cork.
Revenue	£348,000	•••	£535,000
Rental	2,100,000	• • •	3,100,000
County Rates	50,000	• • •	110,000
Total	£2,498,000	Total	£3,745,000

Revenue alone, however, is enough for our present purposes. In that respect Cork is a fourth, or 25 per cent. beyond Wales. Therefore, on this ground (and it is the great one relied upon in England) Cork ought to have to the extent of a fourth more members than Wales. She should, therefore, have 35 members when Wales has 28; but instead of 35 she has only 8 for the entire county. The Welch and Cork members amount altogether to 36. If these were allotted to each in proportion to their relative wealth, the number for Wales would be 16, and for Cork 20.

•	Wales.		Cork.
Representation as it is	 . 28		8
Representation as it ought to be	 16	• • •	20

It follows, therefore, that Wales has 12 members more than she ought to have, and Cork 12 less. If all the additional members given to Wales were added to the 5 given to all Ireland, it would be a smaller measure of justice than Cork alone might claim on a comparison of her pretensions, at least with Wales.—Dublin Weekly Register.

We conclude this article with extracts from Reports published by the Precursor Association of Ireland, in 1839, bearing on the details of the Franchise Injustices, and with the two interesting Appendices to the Report from which we first quoted:—

In England there are the following nine parliamentary franchises, or rights of voting, in counties:

First—The franchise of 40s. freehold for a life or lives.

This franchise requires occupation.

Second—The franchise of 40s. freehold, arising from an estate in fee-simple—that is, in perpetuity. This franchise does not require occupation.

Third—The franchise of £10 clear yearly value, for a life or lives, or in fee. This franchise does not require occupation.

Fourth—The franchise of £10 clear yearly value, in a copyhold estate. This franchise does not require occupation.

Fifth—The original lessee or assignee of a term originally of sixty years or upwards, of the clear yearly value of £10. This franchise does not require occupation.

Sixth—The original lessee or assignee of a term originally of at least twenty years, of the clear yearly value of £50. This

franchise does not require occupation.

Seventh—The sub-lessee or assignee of a sub-lease of a term originally not less than sixty years, of the clear yearly value of £10. This franchise does require occupation.

Eighth—The sub-lessee or assignee of a sub-lesse of a term not less originally than twenty years, of the clear yearly value

of £50. This franchise requires occupation.

Ninth—Any tenant whatsoever, bona fide liable to a rent of £50 a year, whether he have any profit or not. This franchise does require occupation.

The five parliamentary franchises for counties in Ireland, are

as follow:

First—A freehold of the clear yearly value of £10. This

franchise does require occupation.

Second—The lessee or assignee of a term of not less originally than twenty years, having a beneficial interest therein of the clear yearly value of £10. This franchise also requires occupation.

Third—A freehold of the clear yearly value of £20. This

franchise does not require occupation.

Fourth—The lessee or assignee of a term, of not less originally than sixty years, and having a beneficial interest therein of the clear yearly value of £10. This franchise does not re-

quire occupation.

Fifth—The lessee or assignee of a term of not less originally than fourteen years, and having a beneficial interest therein of the clear yearly value of £20. This franchise does not require occupation. But all sub-lessees, or the assignees of an under lease of any of the above terms, do require occupation.

It is quite true, that they have given us a copyhold franchise,

simply because there are no copyhold tenures in Ireland.

Your Committee further remark, that there are the following differences also existing between the English £10 freehold

franchise, and the £10 freehold franchise in Ireland.

First—That no £10 freeholder in England need attend the registry, or make any proof of his title, unless his right to register shall have been publicly objected to, and a specific notice of such objection served upon him.

In Ireland every £10 freeholder must attend, and prove his case, and be liable to a cross-examination upon oath, and he must also produce his title deeds, or account upon oath for their

non-production.

Secondly—The occupation of the premises by the voter is not necessary for a £10 freeholder in England. He is entitled to register, although he never was in possession, provided he received one half year's rent; and he is entitled to vote the moment after being registered.

On the contrary, in Ireland the £10 freeholder must have been in the actual occupation of the premises for six months previous to registry, and he cannot vote for six months after

registry.

Thirdly—The English £10 franchise has this additional advantage over the Irish, that any number of joint tenants, tenants in common or in co-partnery, may register in England, provided the property be of sufficent value to give to each a

clear profit of £10 a year.

In short, the English reform act is intended to increase and accumulate the number of voters. The Irish reform act, on the contrary, was drawn up with the concealed and distinctly disavowed, but real desire to restrict and limit the elective franchise, and to exclude from the right of voting as many of the Irish people as possible.

This plan, so derogatory to Ireland, as to make the Irish

reform act as limited and as unsatisfactory as possible, was carried into effect under the management of Lord Stanley, whose hatred to the people of Ireland is the most conspicuous feature of his conspicuous character, and by the instrumentality of the then solicitor-general for Ireland, Mr. CRAMPTON.

It is now quite manifest, that this learned gentleman, now Mr. JUSTICE CRAMPTON, contrived, by some mistake or other, to draw the Irish bill in a manner so little consistent with the instructions which he received from the cabinet, that he has himself, as a judge, pronounced an opinion, that the construction of the act is directly opposite to that which the ministers

intended by their instructions to him.

The point upon which this contradiction arises, relates to the value of the £10 franchise; and your committee are in a position to prove, that Mr. Solicitor-General Crampton distinctly stated, that he had in this respect complied with the instructions he had received, although his own opinion now is, that the instructions to which we now allude, have not been complied with.

To make this matter more plainly understood, it is our duty to bring public attention to the construction which several of the Irish judges are reported to have put upon the Irish act, with respect to the mode of calculating the value of the property

comprised in the franchise.

This is a matter of vital importance, as such construction actually raises the pecuniary value of the franchise to one of £20 a year value, or thereabouts, instead of the £10 franchise intended by the legislature.

The first act which introduced the £10 franchise into Ireland, was the 10th of Geo. IV., c. 8, and which was the first act that introduced the present form and mode of registry in Ireland.

By the sixth section of that act, it was made necessary for the claimant, to entitle him to register, to prove, beside his title and occupation of the land, that a solvent and responsible tenant could afford to pay, fairly and without collusion, for his premises, the annual sum of £10 as an additional rent; and in the affidavit which the claimant was bound to make, upon being declared entitled to register, he was, by the sixth schedule of the 10th Geo. IV., c. 8, made to swear in these words, "and that a solvent and responsible tenant could, as I verily believe, afford to pay for the said premises, as an additional rent, fairly and without collusion, the annual sum of £10 over and above all rent to which I am liable in respect thereof."

It was easily perceived, that the rent which a solvent tenant could pay, over and above the rent payable by the claimant, was not a fair test of the profit arising in due course of husbandry out of the lands, to the occupying tenant; because any solvent tenant who paid, for example, £10 a year more than the rent payable by the claimant, would, and ought to realise out of the premises, by due course of husbandry, an additional or further profit; and such additional profit, though bona fide produced by the land, and though a bona fide income to the person in possession, was not, according to the 10th of Geo. IV. to be taken into calculation at all, in estimating the value of the £10 franchise. And in like manner the actual profit and income derived by the claimant, fairly and bona fide out of the lands, was not to be taken into consideration, though it should amount to £10 a year. Nay, though it should be greater than £10 a year, unless it were so much greater, as to induce a solvent tenant to pay an additional rent of £10 a year, with a fair prospect of obtaining his natural agricultural profit from the additional advance.

The oppressive effect of this franchise, as established by the 8th of Geo. IV. was so universally felt, that it was one of the mischiefs which required reform, and accordingly, in the Irish reform act, 2d and 3d Wm. IV., c. 88, the words introduced to describe the £10 franchise were, "having a beneficial interest in the premises, of the clear yearly value of not less than £10

over and above all rent and charges."

It is further to be observed, that the 10th of Geo. IV. was repealed by the 2d and 3d Wm. IV. in every thing that related to the registry, and in the new registry there was nothing said of what a solvent tenant would or could pay; and instead of proving anything respecting a solvent tenant, the claimant, in addition to proof of his title, was directed to prove the property in respect of which he sought to be registered, to be "of the value and nature by this act prescribed;" and in the schedule to the reform act, (see schedule C, No. 6,) the affidavit for registry, under the reform act, is set out in substance the same with the affidavit in the 10th of Geo. IV., save in this one most important particular, namely, that the words relating to what a solvent tenant could pay, are totally omitted.

It was upon this point, that the then Solicitor-General Crampton stated, that he had complied with the instructions of the cabinet, to make the "beneficial interest" the test of the £10 value. It is said, however, that Mr. Justice Crampton

has given on the bench an opinion—we know not whether judicial or extra-judicial—that the "beneficial interest" was not made the test of the value of the franchise, under his own Irish reform bill. Whether it be true, that he gave such an opinion or not, is, after all, uncertain; but it is quite certain, and part of history, that he solemnly assured a cabinet minister, that he had in that bill, made the "beneficial interest" the test of the franchise.

We submit that the propriety of the test of value, for which the Irish people have so often in vain contended, is elucidated by the Scotch reform act; for the parliamentary franchise in counties in Scotland, is upon an equally liberal foundation, as it is extended to "all persons, who are owners of any lands or tenements in the county, of the yearly value of £10, and which shall actually yield, or be capable of yielding that value to the claimant, above feu duty or rent, or other considerations which he may be bound to pay for the same."—Report of Precursor Association on County Franchise.

Your Committee beg leave to state, that in Ireland, before the passing of the Reform Act, there were in the open towns

and boroughs in Ireland, five distinct classes of voters.

1st.—Freeholders of 40s. holding in fee simple or perpetual estate.

2nd—Freeholders of 40s. for a life or lives.

3rd.—Freemen by right of birth, servitude, or marriage.

4th.—Freemen by grace especial.

5th.—Persons occupying houses of £5 annual value.

Your Committee cannot repress their just indignation when they state, that of these franchises, four have been annihilated by the Reform Act, and the only one preserved is that of freemen by birth, servitude, or marriage—the most obnoxious, as we shall shew, in its practical results, of any franchise that could well be imagined—the nuisance of freemen by grace especial always excepted.

We ought, perhaps, to observe in passing, that the freemen by grace especial, and the 40s freeholders, if residents, were preserved for the lives of the persons entitled thereto, and in

existence at the time of passing of the reform act.

Your Committee complain bitterly of the fact, that although by the Irish reform act, as it passed the House of Commons, the four rights of the 40s. freeholders and of freemen were preserved during the lives of persons then qualified, but were not to be renewed or continued to any other persons, yet the Duke of Wellington, in the House of Lords, at the instigation of the faction hostile to his native country, having insisted that the freemen by birth, servitude, and marriage, should be preserved in Ireland, Lord Grey, with ready complacency assented, but did not insist that the resident 40s. freeholders should be equally preserved. Thus giving a decided advantage to the Orange faction, who were already in possession of the corporations, and enabling them to commit the gross and flagitious frauds which we shall detail more at length hereafter.

It will be observed, that there are two classes of cities and towns that come within the scope of our present Report.

The first class consists of the cities and towns in England and in Ireland, that are counties in themselves. Secondly, cities and towns that are not counties, and in the word "towns"

we mean to include all boroughs.

Let us take the first class in England, which comprises a great number of cities and towns, and there are the following parliamentary franchises in them.

1st.—Freeholders of 40s. annual value, for a life or lives, as

in counties—this franchise requires actual occupation.

2nd.—A freehold in perpetuity of 40s. value—this does not

require actual occupation.

3rd.—The enjoyment of certain tenures, called Burgage tenures, without any reference to value. This franchise does not require occupation.

4th.—Occupation of any house, warehouse, counting-house, shop, or other building, of the clear yearly value of £10. This

franchise requires occupation.

5th.—Freemen admitted in respect of birth or servitude.

In the Irish counties of cities and towns, the two first of these franchises are annihilated; that is, the two classes of 40s. freeholders—it is perfectly manifest therefore, that a great

number of voters are thus destroyed.

The third class, namely, the holders of Burgage tenures, never existed in Ireland. It follows, therefore, that there is an entire class in England, to multiply the comparative number of voters there; and there are two classes more, which were preserved in the favoured country, England, but were destroyed in Ireland—thus creating another of these odious contrasts which make the flesh creep, at perceiving the vile injustice done to the Irish people, by depriving them of rights which their English neighbours enjoy.

Your Committee emphatically call upon those who are for

continuing the legislative Union between both countries, now to say, whether they will acquiesce in this degrading disparity of franchise, or come forward now to assist this Society, in procuring that equality, without which there may be a nominal, but cannot be a real Union.

Having specified the franchises in the English counties of cities and towns, we proceed to mention those in similar places

in Ireland. They are these-

1st .- £10 freeholders. This franchise requires actual occupation.

2nd.—Leaseholders of a term originally of 20 years, of the

value of £10 a year. This requires occupation.

3rd.—Householders, occupying any house, warehouse, counting-house, or shop, of the clear yearly value of £10. This fran-

chise requires actual occupation.

Your Committee desire to bring the attention of the Irish public to this important fact, that the third of these three franchises includes the other two-each of the three requires actual occupation, and £10 annual value—so that it really is an impudent attempt at delusion, to create nominally three franchises, as if a great boon was offered the Irish, while, in reality, there is but one; and therefore we shall treat them but as one, and justly denominate as the second franchise,

2nd .- The freehold of the clear yearly value of £20, which

franchise does not require occupation; and as the

3rd.—The lessee or assignee of a term, originally of 60 years, of the annual value of £10, which does not require occupation.

4th.—The lessee or assignee of a term of 14 years, of the

annual value of £20, which does not require occupation.

5th.—Freemen admitted in respect of birth, servitude, or

marriage.

We now proceed to the other class of cities and towns, namely, those which are not counties in themselves—these are commonly called boroughs.

In England the rights of voting in boroughs, are as follow:

1st.—£10 householders requiring occupation.

2nd.—Freemen by birth and servitude.

In Ireland also, there are two franchises in boroughs—

1st.—£10 householders requiring occupation. 2nd.—Freemen by birth, servitude, or marriage.

We should, however, observe, that another right to vote seems to have been worked out by judicial decisions.

that of the 12 or 13 burgesses which formed the parliamentary constituency in each of the boroughs instituted by James the 1st, no less than 40 of which were created by him in one day.

This addition, of course, is unfavourable to the Irish people, and the importance of such an addition will appear when we come to consider the extreme paucity of electors in our boroughs.

Your Committee next deem it their duty to designate the points in which the Reform Act of England has been more favourable to English cities and towns, than the Irish Reform Act has been to those in Ireland. We will follow the classification already adopted, and will begin with cities and towns which are counties in themselves.

The advantages of the English over the Irish are these lst.—The admissibility of large classes of voters, as 40s. freeholders.

2nd.—The increase of such voters, by it not being necessary to occupy the premises when held in perpetuity.

3rd.—The persons possessed of Burgage tenures, and who

can register and vote without occupying the same.

Let it be remembered, that England, though the richer country, has these three classes of voters in its cities and towns being counties, whilst the last of them never was in existence at all in this country. The other two were in existence in Ireland, but were taken away by the iniquitous Act of the 10th George IV., and were not restored by the Irish Reform Act at all.

4th.—The £10 freehold franchise in counties of cities or towns in England, does not require actual occupation; whereas in Ireland it does require actual occupation, and requires that such occupation should be continuous.

It is manifest, therefore, that this distinction of the necessity of occupancy in Ireland, and its being dispensed with in England, tends to increase the number of voters, and the facility of voting in England, and, in the same proportion, to diminish them in Ireland.

Your Committee come next to the consideration of the constituencies in the boroughs in England and in Ireland; especially as relates to the £10 householders, who ought to form the effective constituencies of these boroughs.

The English, in this particular, have the following advan-

tages-

1st—That the premises which in England give the franchise, consist not only of a house, warehouse, counting-house, or

shop, to which they are limited in Ireland, but expressly include

any other building whatsoever.

Now it would be difficult to estimate a priori, the difference which the omission of the term "other building" has made in the Irish borough registries. Tory assistant-barristers have held, that corn-stores, and provision-stores, nay, even manufactories of every kind, were not "warehouses," under the meaning of the act.

It has also been held, that stables belonging to coach and car-owners, do not confer a right to vote under the Irish act, though they would clearly under the English one; and the argument for rejecting the claims of the owners to register, has been fortified by the fact, that the words "other building," were included in the English, and excluded from the Irish act.

The second great advantage which the English £10 house-holders possess over the Irish, consists in this—that the actual occupation prior to registry, by the voter, need not be continuously in the premises out of which he seeks to vote, but may be in any premises of similar value within the borough.

In Ireland, on the contrary, the claimant must occupy continuously the same identical premises, for six months prior to, and for six months after the registry, before he can vote; any change of residence during that time, deprives the claimant of

the right to register, or of the right to vote.

The third advantage which the English £10 householders have over the Irish, consists in this, that in England, joint occupiers of houses, or other sufficient premises, can register and vote, if the value of the premises, when divided by the number of occupants, gives £10 to each. By this means partners, however numerous, may become electors, and the joint occupancy, for the purposes of a lucrative trade, augments the number of voters for an English borough, in the ratio of partnerships carrying on business within that borough. It is quite the reverse in Ireland—none of the persons in joint occupation can become an elector, by virtue of premises so held.

Suppose in England premises are held in a borough, of the clear value of £50 a year, by a firm consisting of five partners, each of them can register, and become an elector. But in Ireland not one of them could become an elector; nay, if only two partners held premises in Ireland, worth £1000 a year,

neither one nor the other of them can register.

This is a monstrous inequality between the two countries,

and gives a proportionate advantage to England over Ireland, which is utterly inconsistent with an Union between them.

The fourth, and the greatest difference between the boroughs in England and Ireland, consists in the rate-paying clauses—

In England the £10 householder can register, and vote, upon payment of two taxes—

First—The poor rates—and Secondly—The assessed taxes.

He has an easy access to the rate books of the collector of both these taxes—he can have no difficulty in making the payment of them—they are always receivable without any inconvenience.

But in Ireland the case is widely different. The £10 householder, especially in the cities, is liable to the payment of a number of taxes before he can register or vote, including Grand Jury Cess.—Report of Precursor Association on City, Town, and Borough Franchise.

ADDENDA, No. I.

Compensation for Borough Rights extinguished by the Union, and Names of Parties to whom it was severally awarded.

BOROUGHS.	PARTIES TO WHOM AWARDED.	COMPEN-
bonougns.	FARTIES TO WHOM A WARDED.	
		SATION.
Clonekilty, Co. Cork	Richard, Earl of Shannon	£15,000
Castlemartyr, ditto	ditto	15,000
Charleville, ditto	ditto	7,500
· ·	Edmund, Earl of Cork	7,500
Newcastle, Co. Dublin	Portrieve and Burgesses, Right)	1 = 000
	Portrieve and Burgesses, Right \ Hon. David Latouche \	15,000
Ballinakill, Queen's Co	Charles, Marquis of Drogheda	15,000
St. Johnstown, County	George, Earl of Granard	15,000
Longford	deorge, Larr or Grahard	10,000
Mullingar, Co. W. Meath	Ditto	15,000
		15,000
Harristown, Co. Kildare	Sovereign and Burgesses, and John	15,000
n n	Latouche, Esq	
Boyle, Co. Roscommon	Robert, Earl of Erris, Executor of	15,000
	Robert, Earl of Kingston	
Longford	Thomas, Earl of Longford	15,000
Augher, Co. Tyrone	John James, Marquis of Abercorn	15,000
	Gustavus Lambert, Esq	15,000
Transagem, So. II. Meath	, october do administration of addings and	25,000

•		
BOROUGHS.	PARTIES TO WHOM AWARDED.	COMPEN-
		SATION.
Castlebar, Co. Mayo	Richard, Earl of Lucan	£15,000
Kilmallick, Co. Limerick	Richard Oliver, Esq	15,000
Duleek, Co. Meath	Executor and Trustees under will ?	15,000
	of H. Bruen, Esq 5	10,000
Taghmon, Co. Wexford.	Executors and Trustees under will ?	15,000
0 11 0	of Henry Bruen, Esq	· ·
Carrick, Drumrusk	Robert, Earl of Leitrim	15,000
Belturbet, Co. Cavan	Armar, Earl of Belmore	15,000
Ballyshannon, Co. Done-	Ditto	15,000
Newtownards, Co. Down	James, Earl of Caledon	15,000
Banagher, King's County	Right Hon. W. B. Ponsonby	15,000
St. Johnstown, Co. Done-	Right Hon. W. B. Ponsonby Alice, Countess of Wicklow, and the Right Hon. Wm. Howard and H. Howard	10,000
gal	the Right Hon. Wm. Howard	15,000
	and H. Howard	,,,,,,
Callan, Co. Kilkenny	George, Lord Callan	15,000
Baltimore, Co. Cork	Sir John Freke, Bart	15,000
Dingle, Co. Kerry	Richard Boyle Townsend	15,000
Carysfort, Co. Wicklow	John, Earl of Carysfort	15,000
Ratheormac, Co. Cork	Trustees under will of Lord Rivers- ?	15,000
Hall I C D	dale 5	
Hillsborough, Co. Down	Arthur, Marquis of Downshire	15,000
Monaghan	Lord Clermont, Lord Rossmore,	15,000
	T. Jones, and Henry Westenra,	15,000
Lifford, Co. Donegal	T. L. D. 1 - C D	15,000
Ratoath, Co. Meath	George Lowther, Esq	15,000
Fore	Arthur, Marquis of Downshire	15,000
Ardfert, Co. Kerry	John, Earl of Glandore	15,000
Gouran, Co. Kilkenny	Henry Webbore, Viscount Clifden	15,000
Thomastown, ditto	Ditto	15,000
Clonmines, Co. Wexford	Charles, Marquis of Ely and Chas.	
	Tottenham, Esq. to be paid to Trustee, under Will of Henry,	15,000
	Trustee, under Will of Henry,	10,000
70 250	late Earl of Ely	3 % 000
Bannow, ditto Fethard, ditto	Ditto	15,000
	Ditto Earl of Carrick	15,000
Bangor, Co. Down	Hon. Edmond and Hon. T. Ward	$7,500 \\ 7,500$
Jamestown, Co. Leitrim.	John King, Esq	7,500
damestown, Co. Bernini.	Trustees under Settlement of Gil-?	
	bert King, of Charlestown, Esq. (7,500
Killyleagh, Co. Down	Sir J. Stevenson Blackwood	15,000
Gorey, Co. Wexford	Stephen Ram, Esq	15,000
Blessington, Co. Wicklow	Stephen Ram, Esq Arthur, Marquis of Downshire, and Trustees under Will of C	
	and Frastees under will of C. >	15,000
337* 11	Dunbar, Esq	1
Wicklow	William Tighe, Esq	15,000
Inistioge, Co. Kilkenny	Ditto, and Trustees of Sir W. }	15,000
Cavan	Thombiles Claments E.	7,500
Cavan	Thomas Nesbitt, Esq	7,500
		1,000

BOROUGHS.	PARTIES TO WHOM AWARDED.	COMPEN-
Philipstown, Kings' Co.	Earl of Belvedere, Earl of Lanes-	SATION.
Timpstown, Kings Co.	boro', & Countess of Lanesboro'	£15,000
Carlingford, Co. Louth	Guardian of Ross Balfour Moore, a Minor	7,500
Dunleer, ditto	Rt. Hon. John Foster and Henry Coddington	7,500
	Sovereign and Burgesses of Dunleer	7,500
Askeaton, Co. Limerick	Earl of Carrick	6,850
	Hon, Edward Massy	6,850
	Sir Joseph Hoar, Bart Sir Vere Hunt, Bart	1,100
Charlemont, Co. Armagh	Francis W. Earl of Charlemont	15,000
Middleton, Co. Cork	Viscount Middleton, and Bailiffs?	
ŕ	and Burgesses (15,000
Naas, Co. Kildare	John, Earl of Mayo, Hon. & Rev. 7	
	John, Earl of Mayo, Hon. & Rev. R. Burke, and Sovereign and Burgesses	15,000
Manahama Ongon's Co	Burgesses	7 500
Maryboro, Queen's Co.	Right Hon. J. Parnell Right Hon. Charles H. Coote	7,500
Enniscorthy, Co. Wexford	LOUIS TO LET	12,300
Eminiscortiny, Co. Wearord	Robert Cornwall, Esq	2,700
Ardee, Co. Louth	Charles and W. P. Ruxton, Esq	7,500
3.1.1.1.1.	William Ruxton, Esq	7,500
Doneraile, Co. Cork	Viscount Doneraile	15,000
Lanesborough, Co. Long- ford	Luke, Lord Clonbrock	15,000
Kells, Co. Meath	Marquis of Headfort	15,000
Lismore, Co. Waterford.	William, Duke of Devonshire	15,000
Tallagh	Ditto	
Newtown-limavady, Co.	Robert, Earl of Londonderry	7,500
Killybegs, Co. Donegal	Lord Viscount Castlereagh	7,500
Athenry, Co. Galway	Henry, Earl of Conyngham Theophilus Blakeney, Esq	15,000
Athboy, Co. Meath	John, Earl of Darnley	15,000
Baltinglass, Co. Wicklow	Earl of Aldborough, &c	15,000
Fethard, Co. Tipperary .	Cornelius, Lord Lismore	7,500
	Thomas Barton, Esq	
Trim, Co. Meath	Richard, Marquis Wellesley	
Tuam, Co. Galway	John, Lord Clanmorris	14,000
Knocktopher, Co. Kil-	Hon. W. Yelverton	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
1	Diale II. Cia II I answich	1,138 13,862
Granard, Co. Longford .	G F Lyttleton and W F. Gren-)	
Granda, Cor Bongrora	G. F. Lyttleton and W. F. Gren- ville, Esqrs	15,000
Athy, Co. Kildare		1,200
	William, Duke of Leinster	13,800
Kildare	Ditto	
Randalstown, Co. Antrim		15,000
Tulsk, Co. Roscommon.	George Caulfield	15,000
Donegal	Arthur, Earl of Arran	
Roscommon	Henry, Lord Mount-Sandford	15,000

BOROUGHS.	PARTIES TO WHOM AWARDED. COMPE	N-		
Navan, Co. Meath	John, Lord Tara £7,50 Peter, Earl of Ludlow 7,50	00		
St. Canice, &c., Irishtown, Co. Kilkenny	Commissioners of First Fruits, claimed by the Bishop of Ossory 15,00			
Clogher, Co. Tyrone	Commissioners of First Fruits, (claimed by the Bishop of Clogher (15,00)	00		
Old Leighlin, Co. Carlow	Commissioners of First Fruits, 15,00	00		
Autrim	Earl Massareene 3,78			
	Hon. Henry Skeffington 3,78 Hon. W. J. Skeffington 3,78	5 0		
	Hon. Chichester Skeffington 3,78	50		
Swords, Co. Dublin	No claim admitted, but compensation vested in trust for public purposes, Schools, &c., within the town	00		
TOTAL COMPENSATION, £1,237,500				

55 boroughs vested in peers, and for which compensation was awarded to them by the commissioners.

3 boroughs vested in bishops, for which payment was award-

ed to the first fruits fund.

24 boroughs vested in private individuals, who received compensation according to their alleged duration of tenure; and one borough, Swords, so notoriously corrupt, that none of the many claimants could establish any valid claim to money compensation.

ADDENDA No. II.

The Bishor of Ossory's Claim for Compensation, for the Borough of the Irishtown of Kilkenny, contains the following Statement:

"That by immemorial custom, part of the oath of office taken by the Portrieve, is to be true to the interest of the Bishop of Ossory.

"That for a long series of years, all elections of members of parliament have been held in the bishop's palace yard, and the other corporate meetings in his hall.

"That the Burgesses are always elected on the recommenda-

tion of the BISHOP OF OSSORY.

"That neither property, residence, or service, in the borough, is required of any freeman; and that hardly one inhabitant of the borough is at present a freeman.

"That the influence of the bishop has always been so powerful, that all members of parliament, and burgesses, have been uniformly elected on his recommendation, without one instance

to the contrary.

"That the circumstances above-mentioned have given the Bishops of Ossory so much additional consequence, and obtained for them so much attention from government, that the bishops of that see, (with the exception of only two bishops, who died soon after their appointment,) for above a century past, have been all translated to much more eligible bishoprics.

"That by the Union your memorialist is deprived of that influence and consequence which his predecessors always enjoyed, and from which they derived great advantage; and therefore considers himself entitled to claim any allowance which may be awarded for said borough ceasing to send mem-

bers to parliament."

APPENDIX, No. II.

"THE REGENCY QUESTION."

On the 5th February, 1789, the lord lieutenant, the Marquis of Buckingham, when opening the session, announced to the Irish parliament, the mental indisposition of George the Third, and his consequent unfitness for holding the reins of government. An attempt was made to procure an adjournment for a week, so as to gain time for the resolutions of the British parliament upon the subject to be sent over, and presented for concurrence. But this was defeated by 128 to 74, upon the ground of its being derogatory to the dignity of the Irish legislature. A motion to enter upon the business of supply was also lost; and all consideration of that subject put off for a week. Mr. Grattan moved that the house should meet on the succeeding Wednesday, on which day an address to the Prince of Wales, requesting him to take the government of the empire as regent, during his father's illness, was moved by Mr. Connolly, M.P. for Londonderry; and, after much opposition from the treasury bench, carried without a division.

In the Lords, similar proceedings took place upon the 16th instant; the address there being moved by Lord Charlemont, and carried with twenty-three dissentient voices. These twenty-three lords—of whom four were spiritual peers—entered protests against the measure, mainly upon the ground that an act was necessary before an address,

to enable the powers of regent to be assumed. One peer, LORD GLANDORE, seems to have gone nearer the mark than the others, in a paragraph signed by himself alone. We shall, at the conclusion of our short recital of the proceedings in both parliaments into the regency-dispute, offer a few observations on these remarks of LORD GLANDORE.

On Tuesday, the 19th, both houses waited on the lord lieutenant with their address, and requested him to transmit the same, which he declined doing, upon the general grounds stated in the protest of the twenty-three lords.

The day following, Mr. Grattan moved in the Commons, that the right honourable Thomas Connolly, right honourable J. O'Neil, right honourable W. B. Ponsonby, and J. Stewart, esquire, should be commissioners to present the address to his Royal Highness. The Duke of Leinster and the Earl of Charlemont were chosen by the lords to represent them upon the occasion.

Mr. Grattan subsequently moved and carried a motion, declaring that the two houses had thus discharged "an indispensable duty;" and another, conveying censure upon the viceroy. And upon the 25th of February, he succeeded in limiting the "supplies" to three months.

Meantime the commissioners arrived in London, and on the day following their arrival, viz., the 26th, presented their address to the Prince of Wales. The latter received them with many expressions of esteem and gratitude; but postponed a definite answer, until the result should be known of an apparent amendment in the king's condition. His Majesty's recovery rendered it unnecessary for the Prince to make his second answer, other than a repetition of his complimentary expressions and thanks.

In the British parliament, the following proceedings took place upon this question:—

On the 16th of December, 1788, Mr. PITT moved and carried three resolutions—the first, affirmatory of the fact, that the king's condition rendered him incapable of exercising the royal authority; the second, declaratory of the right of the parliament of Great Britain to supply the proper remedy in such a contingency; and the third, that they should consider that remedy. Upon the 30th of January following, both houses of parliament presented to the Prince of Wales a series of resolutions, appointing him regent; but with the limitations of restricting him from creating peers, from granting offices, save during his majesty's pleasure, and from making any grants of the king's real or personal estate. The care of the king's person to be vested in the queen; who was to have all authority over the household, and to be assisted by a special council. To these resolutions, fifty-five peers, including one bishop, were dissentient, on the grounds, that in these, and the former resolutions, the parliament was exceeding its constitutional powers-especially in the matter of the limitations, which they denounced as derogatory to the due dignity, influence, and respect, which should attach to the kingly office under all circumstances. The prince replied by consenting to take on him the office of regent, even under the recited limitations, being moved thereto by the urgency of the case.

The recovery of the king ended, of course, all proceedings in England, as well as in Ireland, relative to a regency.

In the protest of Lord Glandore, which we have quoted, the objection founded on the act of 10th Henry VII., commonly called "Poyning's Law," is well put. That act, by a singular mistake of the men of '82, remained on the statute book unrepealed, though modified and little used. The position, too, laid down in the last sentence quoted, to the effect, "that no person could be regent of Ireland, who was not, at the same time, regent of Great Brtain," was perfectly correct, according to the interpretation and spirit of the Irish act, 33 Henry VIII., c. 1, (A.D. 1542,) uniting the crown of the former country to that of the latter.

If the Irish parliament erred at all, it was in over-haste. It might, perhaps, have been better to have waited until the British parliament had committed the wilful error which they did commit, by their proposed limitations of the regent's authority. The argument against those limitations was irrefutable. The Prince of Wales being the king's natural and rightful successor, with full kingly powers, in case of physical death, should so have been considered to the fullest extent, in the then case of alienation of mind, or mental death.

This sound constitutional doctrine was what the Irish parliament contended for, with, perhaps, a too jealous haste. But the legislature of Great Britain, by the in fact illegal and unconstitutional restrictions they sought to impose on the prince, justified the anticipations which induced the Irish parliament to declare their opinion so promptly.

All future differences on such questions after the Repeal of the Union, can well be obviated, by the international arrangement to which we not only assent, but actually propose, viz.—that the regent de facto in England shall be regent de jure in Ireland.

APPENDIX, No. III.

THE

" IRISH LEGISLATIVE INDEPENDENCE" CONTROVERSY.

This old cause of bitter and woful dissension between This controthe two countries, although adhuc sub judice, may now be versy likely said to be at length approaching a settlement. The events final of the present time, and the next few months, must either establish finally and securely the claim of Ireland to legislate for herself, or throw her back, for many a weary day of wretchedness, into worse than her present state of legislative dependence upon Great Britain.

Knowing the present temper of the Irish people, and their admirable self-control, and patient, though indomitable determination, we feel a confident assurance that the first of the two results we mention, will be that which

Meantime it is well to have the history of the former History of struggles on this subject fresh in our minds.

will come to pass.

The independence of the Irish parliament was in two Two grieways assailed and restricted by England.

First, by the claim, as of right, made and asserted by viz. 1st parthe English parliament, to bind Ireland by their laws.

Next, by the operation of a law, which the influence of the English procured to be passed here, in Henry the

vances of Ireland in this matter, liamentary interference by England. 2nd. privy terference.

Seventh's time—commonly called "Poyning's Law," from the name of the Lord Deputy of the day-by which law it was provided, that no act could be passed by the Irish parliament, save such as had first been submitted to the privy council of England, and by them returned as one which they considered a proper subject to entertain. they disapproved of the proposed act, they had the power of strangling it without more ado.

Molyneux wrote first.

It was against the first of these grievances that the celeagainst the brated Molyneux wrote his "Case of Ireland," published by him in 1698; and ordered by the British House of Commons to be burned by the common hangman, as an audacious interference with their rights-viz., with their invasions of the parliamentary rights of Ireland.

Brief statement of his

Molyneux proves, mainly upon the high authority of Sir Edward Coke, the free and unfettered grant of parliaments to Ireland, by Henry the Second. In 1216, Henry the Third granted Magna Charta to Ireland in precisely the same terms as the English grant, and confirmed it on two occasions afterwards, doing, however, little more than extending a previous grant of his father, King John, in his capacity as Lord of Ireland. In the year 1253, his Queen, being regent during his temporary absence, addressed the "Archbishops, Bishops, Priors, Earls, Barons, Knights, Freemen, Citizens, and Burgesses of this land of Ireland," beseeching them for an aid of men and money against the king of Castile's hostile invasion of Gascony.

In the reign of Edward the Second,* several of the most important of the acts up to that time passed in the British

^{*} A statute of the year 1356, the 31 Edward III., stat. 4, confirmatory of the grants of John and the two first Henrys, after declaring the liberty of the Irish Church, goes on to authorize the calling together in parliament of the prelates and nobles of Ireland, and "quidam de discretioribus et proprioribus hominibus—ut nostræ et ipsius terræ (scil. Hiberniæ) negotia tractentur, deducantur, et fideliter discutiantur; ET ETIAM TERMINENTUR.'

parliament, were confirmed and adopted by act of the Irish parliament, and others referred for examination and consideration. It was then declared, that only such of them as should be allowed and published, were to stand as laws in Ireland; and an Irish act of the 10th Henry IV., followed by one in the 29th year of Henry VI., expressly provided and enacted, that no English law should have force, unless adopted, allowed, and published by the Irish parliament. Molyneux remarks, that these statutes, if they do give evidence of attempts to rule Ireland by purely British statutes; yet, give equal evidence that the attempt was resisted, and all right to make it utterly disallowed. proceeds to furnish several other instances of the necessity of adoption, by express enactments in Ireland, to give force to English statutes, allowing indeed, that English acts, merely declaratory of the common law of England, and not introductive of any new matter, had force, although not adopted specially as above. This, however, proceeded from the fact of their so being merely declaratory and explanatory of the common law of England, established in Ireland under the grants and charters of Henry the Second, King John, and Henry the Third. The instances of invalidity, without re-enactment in Ireland, of English laws introducing new matter, he brings down to the time at which he wrote, viz., the year 1698; and they continued after his time.

He admits, that acts of the English parliament, prohibit- His protest against the ing the plantation of tobacco, passed in the reign of Charles precedents from Charles the Second, did bind Ireland, as did also other acts of the the Second's reign. same reign, injuring and nearly destroying our trade with the English colonies and plantations, and prohibiting our wool export to any country but England: but he declares them innovations and grievous wrongs; and indignantly demands—(p. 65, of 1773)—" And shall proceedings of

thirty-seven years standing (viz., from 1660 to 1698) be urged against a nation, to deprive them of the *rights* and *liberties* which they enjoyed five hundred years before, and which were invaded without and against their consent, and from that to this have been constantly complained of? Let any English heart, that stands so justly in vindication of his own *rights* and *liberties*, answer this question, and I have done!"

No precedent from Cromwell's usurpations.

Failure in Molyneux's The independence of the Irish parliament, that is, from any control of the British parliament, would then seem sufficiently proven up to the time of Charles the second. Under Cromwell, indeed, acts had undoubtedly passed, which were held to bind Ireland—but they had that force merely by reason of his military possession of Ireland—and could not be called acts of an English parliament exclusively, there having been Irish representatives summoned to London, and sitting in the commons there.* But of whatever force such acts may have been under the commonwealth, they utterly ceased so to be, and were annulled on the restoration by the acts of settlement and explanation. Any precedent, therefore, given by them,

* In the present Lord Monteagle's speech, after that of Mr. O'Connell opening the Repeal debate of 1834, this circumstance of Irish members sitting in Cromwell's parliament was mentioned, in order to bring in a quotation of some remarks of Molyneux's on the subject, which Lord Monteagle considered an enlistment of that writer in the ranks of the supporters and favourers of the principles of a legislative Union. The words were—"If the parliament of England may bind Ireland, the people of Ireland ought to have their representatives in that parliament; and this, I believe, we should be willing enough to embrace, but this is a happiness we can hardly hope for."

So far, however, as a case, radically bad, could be advantaged by the theoretic opinions of any writer, the case for a Union must lose what advantage the foregoing may be considered to have given it, if the next words of

Molyneux be taken, viz:—
"This sending of representatives out of Ireland, was found in process of time to be very troublesome and inconvenient; (just our experience at the present day;) and this, we presume, was the reason, that afterwards, when times were more settled, we fell again into our old track, and regular course of parliaments in our own country." (p. 60, edition of 1773.)

was removed from the statute book by the English parliament themselves.

Molyneux found himself rather in a dilemma, when he came to consider what had occurred, in the way of British legislation for Ireland, in the reign of William the Third. We transcribe his words:

"I am now arrived at our present days, under the happy go-English vernment of his majesty king William III., and I am sorry to acts binding Ireland reflect, that since the late revolution in these kingdoms, when since king William's the subjects of England have, more strenuously than ever, reign. asserted their own rights, and the liberty of parliaments, it has pleased them to bear harder on their poor neighbours, than has ever yet been done in many ages foregoing. I am sure what was then done by that wise and just body of senators, was perfectly out of good will and kindness to us, under those miseries which our afflicted country of Ireland then suffered. But I fear some men have, since that, made use of what was then done, to other purposes than at first intended. Let us now see what that was, and consider the circumstances under which it was done.

"In the year 1689, when most of the Protestant nobility, gentry, and clergy of Ireland, were driven out of that kingdom by the insolencies and barbarities of the Irish Papists, who were then in arms throughout the kingdom, and in all places of authority under king James, newly returned to them out of France; the only refuge we had to fly to, was England, where multitudes continued for many months, destitute of all manner of relief, but such as the charity of England afforded, which indeed was very munificent, and never to be forgotten.

"The Protestant clergy of Ireland being thus banished from Act for the their benefices, many of them accepted such small ecclesiastical Protestant promotions in England as the benevolence of well disposed persons presented them with. But this being directly contrary to a statute in this kingdom, in the 17 and 18 of Charles II. cap. 10, intituled 'An act for disabling of spiritual persons from holding benefices or other ecclesiastical dignities, in England or Wales, and in Ireland at the same time,' the Protestant Irish clergy thought they could not be too secure in avoiding the penalty of the last mentioned act, and therefore applied themselves to the parliament of England, and obtained an act in the first year of king William and queen Mary, c. 28, intituled

An act for the relief of the Protestant Irish clergy. And this was the first attempt that was made for binding Ireland by an act in England, since his majesty's happy accession to the throne of these kingdoms.

Act against commerce with France. "Afterwards, in the same year, and same session, chap, 34, there passed an act in England, prohibiting all trade and commerce with France, both from England and Ireland. This also binds Ireland, but was during the heat of the war in that kingdom, when it was impossible to have a regular parliament therein, all being in the hands of the Irish papists. Neither do we complain of it, as hindering us from corresponding with the king's enemies: for it is the duty of all good subjects to abstain from that. But as Scotland, though the king's subjects, claims an exemption from all laws but what they assent to in parliament, so we think this our right also.

Act for security of the Protestants of Ireland. "When the banished laity of Ireland observed the clergy thus careful to secure their properties, and provide for the worst as well as they could in that juncture, when no other means could be taken by a regular parliament in Ireland; they thought it likewise advisable for them to do something in relation to their concerns. And accordingly they obtained the act for the better security and relief of their majesty's Protestant subjects of Ireland, 1 W. & M. ses. 2, c. 9, wherein king James's Irish parliament at Dublin, and all acts and attainders done by them, are declared roid. 'Tis likewise thereby enacted, that no Protestant shall suffer any prejudice in his estate or office, by reason of his absence out of Ireland since December, 25, 1685, and that there should be a remittal of the king's quitrents from the 25th of December, 1688, to the end of the war. Thus the laity thought themselves secure.

"And we cannot wonder, that during the heat of a bloody war in this kingdom, when it was impossible to secure our estates and properties by a regular parliament of our own; we should have recourse to this means, as the only which then could be had. We concluded with ourselves, that when we had obtained these acts from the parliament in England, we had gone a great way in securing the like acts to be passed in a regular parliament in Ireland, whenever it should please God to reestablish us in our own country: for we well knew our own constitution under Poyning's Law, that no act could pass in the parliament of Ireland, till approved of by the king and privy council of England. And we knew likewise, that all the lords and others of his majesty's privy council in England are

members of the lords or commons house of parliament there. And that by obtaining their assent to acts of parliament in favour of the Irish Protestants, they had in a manner preengaged their assent to the like bills when they should hereafter come before them as privy counsellors, in order to be regularly transmitted to the parliament of Ireland, there to be passed into laws of that kingdom. But instead of all this, to meet with another construction of what was done herein, and to have it pleaded against us as a precedent of our submission. and absolute acquiescence in the jurisdiction of the parliaments of England over this kingdom, is what we complain of as an invasion (we humbly conceive) of that legislative right which our parliament of Ireland claims within this kingdom.

"The next act passed in the parliament of England, binding Act ap-Ireland, that is, for abrogating the oath of supremacy in Ire-new oaths. land, and appointing other oaths, 3 and 4 William and Mary, c. 2. To this the parliament convened at Dublin, anno 1692, under Lord Sydney, and that likewise anno 1695, under Lord Capel, paid an entire obedience. And by this (it is alleged) we have given up our right, if any we had, and for ever acknowledged our subordination to the parliament of England."

He goes on to deny the force of this reasoning, on the Sectarianground that this was a voluntary submission of our par-promised the legislaliament; and that as to the laws passed in Westminster, tive vights of Ireland. they had been applied for by the Irish Protestants, and so acquired their binding force.

His argument, however, must be said rather to halt upon this point. The Protestants of Ireland, at and after the sad and sanguinary eivil war of 1688, were in something of the condition of the horse, in the old fable of the contest between him and the stag. The horse, eager for victory over his opponent, besought the aid of man to obtain that end, and accordingly suffered man to bridle and mount him. But when the desired victory was accomplished, he found that his ally relished too much his new position of control to abandon it, and so remained his master. Even thus the Irish Protestants called in and availed themselves of the aid of the British parliament; but when their objects were attained, and the contest ended favourably to their views, they, like the horse, found their new ally a master, and quite as vainly sought to shake off the control they themselves had conceded.

But the Irish nation was not a consenting party. This, therefore, is the weakest part of Molyneux's case. The true argument for denying the precedents which he vainly contests on the unstable grounds in the quotation just given from him, would have been, and is, that there was no national consent of Ireland to the parliamentary interference of England. The Protestants were but a portion of the nation. So far was the nation from concurring in and submitting to these invasions, that the parliament of James the Second, in Ireland, which sat in 1689, passed a law declaring that Ireland was a "distinct kingdom, always governed by his Majesty and his predecessors, according to the ancient customs, laws, and statutes thereof; and that the parliament of Ireland alone could make laws to bind this kingdom." A clause of this act totally repealed Poyning's law.

The nation asserted its rights in 1688, as before in 1641 and 1642. There is no doubt that that parliament of James the Second's, was the national legislature. It had the confidence of the bulk of the nation—the Catholics. Several Protestants had seats in the Commons; and in the Lords, as many peers, spiritual and temporal, of the Protestant religion, as chose to retain their allegiance to James, were freely admitted; and not only in person, but their proxies were allowed to be taken. The determined and unqualified manner in which this body asserted the legislative independence of Ireland, had had its example in the conduct of the Irish parliament in 1641. On the 26th July in that year, they resolved as follows:—

"It is voted upon question, nullo contradicente, that the subjects of this H. M. kingdom, are a free people, and to be governed only according to the common law of England, and

the statutes made and established by parliament in this kingdom of Ireland, and according to the lawful custom used in the same." - (Commons' Journals, July 1641.)

Here is the full doctrine afterwards defended by Molyneux-namely, the allowance of the common law of England in Ireland, as established under the original grants and charters whereby the British constitution was established in Ireland; but a total denial of the force of any statute law, unless specially enacted by the Irish parliament itself.

In this parliament were both Protestants and Catholics, in about equal numbers, and it may on the whole, considering the circumstances of the times, be said to have represented the nation and spoken the national voice.

The kind of parliament called together the year afterwards, by the confederated Catholics in Kilkenny, which certainly spoke the sentiments of the bulk of the nation viz., the Catholics—similarly asserted the legislative independence of their country.

Although we do not admit the force of the reasoning Even a sec-tarian Irish by which Molyneux would seek to get out of the dilemma parliament in which the anti-nationality of his co-religionists in 1688- against English as-90 placed him, by their acceptance of English legislation; sumption. and although the sectarian and persecuting spirit of themselves and their successors for nearly a century afterwards, plunged Ireland deeper and deeper in social miseries, whose effects deeply furrow the face of society at the present day, yet there is no doubt that the Protestant parliament of Ireland did, and is entitled to credit for that it did, take up again, even so early as in 1690, and with stubbornness and constancy did maintain the claim and right of Ireland to be bound only by laws passed at home.

They, however, did not attempt so bold a flight as to resist the enforcement of Poyning's law. This had been

done by the *national* parliaments of which we have spoken; but could only be done, as it had only been done, by means and force of the united voice of the nation-a condition of strength which the persecuting, penal law parliaments after 1690, did not and could not command.

" Poyning's Law," as en-larged and extended.

We have before mentioned the nature of the restrictions of "Poyning's law," 10 Henry VII., c. 4, passed in 1495. Subsequent acts occasionally suspended or enforced it, until the 3rd and 4th year of Philip and Mary, which "explained," by rendering more stringent its provisions. Thus the right of the king, in his English council, to alter acts transmitted from Ireland was established, not to be again questioned; as also, that not only were the bills, for the consideration and passing of which the parliament was specially called together, to be first considered by the king as above, but that no bills should be introduced throughout the entire session but such as should have been so first considered by him.

This previous consideration included not only the power of alteration, but even of total rejection of a bill, at his pleasure and that of his English council. In the latter event, the Irish parliament could not, of course, proceed with the

Mistakes in the assertion in 1782.

We are now approaching the notice of what was done Glorious as the occurrences of that time have of our rights in 1782. been rightly called, two mistakes were made by our legislature then. The first, in not insisting at once on a total and distinct renunciation, by the British parliament, of its usurped authority to pass laws binding Ireland; the second, by not totally abrogating Poyning's law, and returning to the old constitutional practice, (before the 10th Henry VII.,) of permitting no reference of their measures to the executive until passed in both houses, and then demanding the royal decision upon them, to be expressed in public.

We shall have to refer more minutely to the proceedings Brief details of the atin 1782 presently, and so shall not delay further here, from tempts at self-asserour previous intention of giving a few instances of what the penal-law we are ready to call patriotic stubbornness, on the part of parliaments of Ireland. even the penal-law parliaments of Ireland.

William's Irish parliament began their attempts at selfassertion, by the Commons rejecting, in 1690, a money bill, because it had not originated in their house. Shortly after, they proposed to re-enact specially for Ireland, four English statutes, which had been intended to bind Ireland without such re-enactment. It is true, that the heads of the bill for this purpose, having been, according to the forms of their slavery, transmitted to England, for consideration of the king in his council there, were rejected by him, at the instance of the English parliament, which not long after ordered Molyneux's "Case of Ireland" to be burnt by the common hangman. Still the attempt, though defeated, was practically a protest against England's usurpation.

In 1703, the Irish lords spiritedly and successfully resisted an attempt on the part of the upper house of Great Britain to interfere with their judicial authority, in the case of a decree made by them in favour of the Earl and Countess of Meath, dispossessed of certain lands in the county Tipperary, by order of the English lords in 1669, during the non-sitting of the Irish parliament.

In 1709, the commons rejected a money-bill, because it had been altered in England.

In 1719, the Irish lords again asserted their appellant jurisdiction, in the case of a Mr. Annesley, dispossessed by their order of certain lands in the county Kildare. this occasion they sent a long address to the king, (Geo. I.) complaining of the conduct of the English lords, both in 1699, and in this case, in which the latter body had reversed

their decision, and directed the barons of the Irish exchequer to order the sheriff of the county, Alexander Burrowes, to reinstate Mr. Annesley. The sheriff had spiritedly refused to obey their order, and demanded the protection of the Irish lords.

Their address was, as we have said, long, and went into much argument to prove their invaded rights. But it was met in England with the haughty contempt with which Irish claims have usually been there received—a contempt increased in this instance by the knowledge that there was nothing to fear from the indignation of the Irish parliament—the parliament of a party dependent upon England for the upholding of their unchristian ascendancy.

England's bold act of tyranny to stop those attempts.

To rid themselves for the future of the annovances, even of humble remonstrances from such a quarter, the English government procured a law to be passed by their own parliament, entitled, "an act for the better securing the dependency of the kingdom of Ireland upon the crown of Great Britain," whereby, after declaring that the conduct of the Irish lords, in the two cases mentioned, was "against law," and denying their jurisdiction over the courts of justice in Ireland, it was further declared, "that the said kingdom of Ireland hath been, and of right ought to be, subordinate and dependent upon the imperial crown of Great Britain-and that the king's majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal. and commons of Great Britain in parliament assembled, had, hath, and of right ought to have, full power and authority, to make laws and statutes of sufficient force and validity to bind the kingdom and people of Ireland!"

After which followed a provision annulling all proceedings of appeal before the Irish lords.

In 1729, the Irish parliament had the courage to refuse to vote the supplies for so long a period as twenty-one years, which they were then asked to do.

In 1751 they asserted their right of control over the surplus of the revenue.

Some more extended notice than a mere mention of this Digression. The contest matter is not irrelevant to our subject; inasmuch as an between the efficient control over the public revenue is so essential an the Irish attribute of a parliament worthy of the name. There is, too, as to disposal of surplus in the compilation of which this is one of the appendices, revenue. a point of considerable importance alluded to, which would otherwise require special notice of this question, as to the disposal of Irish surplus revenue. We allude to the pecuniary profligacy so unreservedly and unsparingly charged against parliaments in Ireland, by those who would fain have us continue to submit our interests to English legislation. It may, therefore, be well to dispose of the matter here, once for all.

We will take even English authority on the subject. Lord North's In the debate, in the English house of commons, (Monday, the subject. May 30th, 1785,) on the final consideration of the "commercial propositions" of that year, LORD NORTH, in speaking of the Irish revenue, gave the house the history of a contest relative to the latter, between the crown and the Irish parliament in 1751. He said, that the groundwork of the dispute had been laid immediately after the restoration of Charles the Second. The Cromwellian settlers at that time, in return for being secured, by Charles's act of settlement, and its explanation, in the forfeited lands, (of Charles's own adherents in Ireland,) settled upon the crown certain very important sources of revenue.

"Those grants were so liberal, and so productive, that parliament ceased to be necessary there; and Charles the Second never held another in Ireland during his whole reign. The Irish felt the error they had been guilty of in settling so great an income on the crown as rendered it independent of parliament; and the hereditary revenue soon become an object

of jealousy, not to say detestation, to the people. The debt contracted at the revolution afforded them an opportunity of proving this; in providing for the payment of that debt, they laid on additional duties of customs and excise, but they would not impose them for more than two years, in order that the crown should be under the necessity of calling the parliament together again, before the expiration of the two years: this policy had the desired effect, and the commons have persevered in it from that day to this, with a difference of late, that the session being annual, the grants of money are only from one year to another. The hereditary revenue had, since the revolution, been a subject of jealousy and terror to the parliament, insomuch that so far from endeavouring to improve it, they never missed an opportunity to throw charges upon it, to bear it down: however, in 1751, there was in the exchequer of Ireland a surplus of £400,000; this, instead of being matter of joy, was the cause of general consternation throughout the kingdom: it was feared the crown was become so rich, that it could pay off the debt that was then on the nation, and having no farther occasion for the annual grants, would call no more parliaments. There was a question in that year of disposing of this surplus of £400,000; and a bill was brought into parliament for that purpose; the preamble was to this effect: Whereas his Majesty has signified his consent, that the surplus now in the exchequer, &c., be disposed of,' &c. The zealous patriots took fire at the word consent, though it had been inserted in two other acts before that on similar occasions: they said the king had a right to give his assent to that bill as well as to any other; but that he had no right to give his consent; which latter term implied, that the subject could not be so much as discussed, or made the substance of a bill, without the previous consent of the crown, as in the case of private grants. This was the ground of a great struggle in the commons, where the most formidable opposition ever known in Ireland, was made against this word consent: the opposition triumphed; the word consent was struck out of the bill, which dropped on that account, its friends having no regard for it after it had lost the magical word. The triumph of opposition set Ireland in a blaze; nothing but bonfires and illuminations were to be seen from one end of the kingdom to the other, and the glorious 122 (the numbers upon the winning side upon the division) was the first toast at every table."

On what followed, the author of that valuable work, The lavish-"The Commercial Restraints of Ireland Considered," Irish parliament caused (Dublin, 1779,) thus remarks:-

by the en-eroachments of the erown.

"They wished to avoid any future contest of that kind, and were flattered to grant the public money from enlarged views of national improvements. The making rivers navigable, the making and improving harbours, and the improvement of husbandry and other useful arts, were objects worthy of the representatives of the people; and had the faithfulness of the execution answered the goodness of the intention, the public would have had no reason to complain. Many of these grants prove the poverty of the country. There were not private stocks to carry on the projects of individuals, nor funds sufficient for incorporating and supporting companies, nor profits to be had by the undertakings sufficient to reimburse the money necessary to be expended. The commons, therefore, advanced the money for the benefit of the public; and it can never be supposed that they would have continued to do so for above twenty years, if they were not convinced that there were not funds in the hands of individuals sufficient to carry on these useful undertakings, nor trade enough in the kingdom to make adequate return to the adventurers."

The lavishness, therefore, of the expenditure of public Strong cirmoney, by the Irish parliament, had its origin, at any rate, of extensain a good and constitutional motive, and the encroaching and usurping spirit of the government is far more deserving of blame.

As to the application of those grants, if we consider the very small progress that sound ideas on the subject of stimulants to industry and commercial enterprise had made in any country at that time; and also that the Irish parliament was the parliament of a party, whose every evil tendency had been sedulously encouraged and fostered by England herself, for her own base purposes; and further, was one whose ancient constitution had, by several instances of most iniquitous abuse of prerogative by the crown, (from the time of James the First, who created

40 boroughs in one day, down to the monarch actually on the throne, George the Second,) been limited, grievously restricted, and corrupted. If we take these and other such circumstances into consideration, instead of exclaiming at the profligacy of the Irish parliament, rather wonder at their making any attempt, however mistaken, to expend What would the money for the benefit of the country. Had the really not the debt-incur- profligate English parliament---that parliament that saddled so many hundreds of millions upon their country, under which she is groaning at the present day---ever found themselves in the same position of having a surplus to dispose of, the story would have been different; and little thought would have been shewn for any interests but those of the individuals composing that parliament themselves.

ring English parliament have done under such circumstances?

> We now return to our immediate subject. It will be seen, that although the Irish legislature (speaking of it as a perpetual body) had allowed itself to be placed in a false position, and had further aided the views of England, by narrowing its own base, and depriving itself of the firm support of a whole nation, still the ground of the constitution was not altogether abandoned; but some struggle was made from time to time to prevent the encroachments of England from gaining the sanction of prescription and silent sufferance.

> In matters of finance, the struggle succeeded better than in other points. We have noted three instances already. A fourth occurred in 1769, when the Irish Commons rejected a money bill, "because it had originated in the Privy Council."

> A still more creditable achievement of theirs was their giving up the species of life-right, which, from a corruption of the constitution in Ireland, they had in the occupancy of their seats, (save in case of a dissolution by the

king,) and passing a bill limiting the existence of a parliament to the modern term of seven years. The English Privy Council altered this bill, by substituting eight years, hoping that the circumstance of its being at all meddled with by them, would make the Irish Commons reject the bill; but the latter saw the trap, and had wisdom and patriotism enough to avoid it, and so passed the octennial bill of 1767. We now come to the time when the effort at self-vindication was renewed under better auspices, and, so far as the encroachments of the English parliament were concerned, with complete though short-lived success.

In the article on "Commercial Injustices," which the reader will find in another part of this appendix, it is shewn how the legislative restrictions on our commerce and manufactures gradually became more and more galling, and their injurious operation even upon some English, as well as upon all Irish interests, more and more evident, until, in 1779, the moment of England's weakness, from her foreign disasters, was seized by the Irish parliament to bring her to a better sense, and make her consent to the removal of a considerable portion of those restrictions. is also mentioned, that the satisfaction of Ireland was extreme, and that England was so imprudent as by acts of her own to cause a very speedy diminution of that satisfaction. Had she (as common worldly prudence would have advised) endeavoured rather to foster the new-born feeling, it is probable that the generous credulity of the Irish character might have suffered itself to be amused, and the national attention to be distracted from the immediate pursuit of legislative independence, until such time as, by a dexterous handling of the old causes of intestine division, the unwonted union among Irishmen might be broken up, and the old policy of "divide et impera" speedily rendered once more triumphant.

But, instead of a warning being taken from the compelled concessions of 1779-80, the spirit of arrogant aggression was rather the more excited in England by what then occurred. Ireland's gains at that time being considered little other than as so much taken from England, by a kind of successful rebellion. The interferences with the Irish mutiny act and sugar duties bill (referred to in the article mentioned) were therefore resolved upon, and this unwise proceeding gave a fresh and powerful impulse to the new disposition towards self-assertion that had manifested itself in Ireland.

We have before alluded to the defects in what was done for Ireland in 1782. The right of England to legislate for Ireland was repudiated; but the controlling power given by Poyning's act to the English Privy Council, was not really interfered with. As the best means of shewing not only the deeds of the time, but the opinions and arguments then used, we shall give extracts from the proceedings of the Irish parliament in that eventful year, after we notice the proceedings out of doors.

The Irish Commons having, in April, 1780, protested against Ireland's being bound by English legislation, their protest was received with general joy and approbation throughout this country. The year 1781 passing away without any indication on the part of England of her disposition to attend to this protest, the Irish will and determination, on the subject to which it referred, displayed itself early in the succeeding year, with a formidable strength and unanimity. The grand juries everywhere declared for Irish legislative independence, and their example was imitated by the mercantile body, the bar, the volunteer corps, &c., &c. The most celebrated of these meetings was that of the Dungannon Convention; a meeting, as it was described, of "The representatives of one hundred and forty-three Corps of Volunteers," &c., &c.

DUNGANNON CONVENTION.

At a Meeting of the Representatives of one hundred and forty-three Corps of Volunteers, of the province of Ulster, held at Dungannon, on Friday, the 15th day of February, 1782,

COLONEL WILLIAM IRVINE in the Chair.

Resolved unanimously—That a claim of any body of men, other than the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, to make laws to bind this kingdom, is unconstitutional, illegal, and a Grievance.

Resolved unanimously—That four members from each county of the province of Ulster, (eleven to be a quorum,) be and are hereby appointed a Committee 'till next general meeting, to act for the Volunteers Corps here represented, and, as occasion shall require, to call general meetings of the province; viz.,

Lord Visct. Enniskillen Col. Mervyn Archdall Col. Wm. Irvine Col. Robert M'Clintock Col. John Ferguson Col. John Montgomery Col. Charles Leslie Col. Francis Lucas Col. Thomas M. Jones Col. James Hamilton Col. Andrew Thompson Lieut.-Col. C. Nesbitt Lieut.-Col. A. Stewart Major James Patterson Major Francis Dobbs Major James M'Clintock Major Charles Duffin Captain John Harvey Captain Robert Campbell Captain Joseph Pollock Captain Wad. Cunningham Captain Francis Evans Captain John Cope Captain James Dawson Captain James Atcheson Captain Daniel Eccles Captain Thomas Dickson Captain David Bell Captain John Coulston Captain Robert Black Rev. William Crawford Mr. Robert Thompson.

Resolved (with two dissenting voices only, to this and the following Resolution)—That we hold the right of private judgment in matters of religion, to be equally sacred in others as in ourselves.

Resolved therefore — That as men, and as Irishmen, as Christians, and as Protestants, we rejoice in the relaxation of the Penal Laws against our Roman Catholic fellow subjects;

and that we conceive the measure to be fraught with the happiest consequences to the union and prosperity of the inhabitants of Ireland.

Signed, WM. IRVINE, Chairman.

In the Addendum to this article will be found many other documents of the same description, from the various bodies we have mentioned.

Having now to deal with the proceedings IN parliament we shall, as before intimated, proceed to give a sufficient abstract of the chief debates on legislative independence.

IRISH DEBATES.

FRIDAY, FEBRUARY, 22, 1782.—VOL. I. PAGE 266.

Mr. Grattan's Motion for an Address to the King, upon Irish Independence.

Mr. Grattan—After the ample discussion in this house, of the great question of right, the 19th April, 1780, and the universal reprobation of the assumption of the British parliament to bind this kingdom, then received, I had been silent on the subject, if that parliament, since that time, had not continued its tyrannical and unconstitutional assumption, by enacting laws to bind Ireland; as also a proclamation in the Irish Gazette, where the execution of a British statute is enforced. Measures that evidently show that the British nation, so far from relinquishing the claim of usurped authority in this kingdom, have still the same spirit of making laws for us, which they keep alive by renewing their claim on every occasion. These fresh instances of British usurpation, added to that disgraceful and unrepealed act, 6th of George I, makes it necessary at this time, for the parliament of Ireland to come to an explanation concerning its privileges, and the injured right of the nation. [Mr. G. here related several instances of British injustice to Ireland, from the act of Navigation to the present time.] And what are the boasted relaxations Britain has granted? The first, in 1778, as contemptible in principle as in effect; for after a bar of lawyers was brought to plead against Ireland in the English House of Commons, we were permitted to export everything except our manufactures. Their favour was an insult and aggravation to our misery. The second period was in 1779,

when government abdicated the defence of Ireland, and Ireland appeared in arms. The minister now changed his tone—he glanced a temporary gleam of hope upon our shields—he gave us every thing, but kept the power of taking it back—he retained

a Mutiny bill and a Post-Office act.

The third period was a ministerial address of thanks, calculated to dissolve the union of the people—it had its effect; when it was known that the strength of this house was dissolved, and that the glory of 1779 was no more, an order comes over to oppose on every occasion the latent claims of Ireland, to oppose an Irish Mutiny bill, to alter the Sugar bill. The reprobated measure of a perpetual Mutiny bill followed, but you have not done with it yet; you have stabbed your country, and the wound is festering. Emboldened by your dissolution, English acts binding Ireland were passed last winter........ I am for honourable tranquillity; but when I see an administration unable to make a blow against an enemy, tyrannize over Ireland, I am bound to exert every power to oppose it.

Ireland is in strength; she has acquired that strength by the weakness of England; for Ireland was saved when America was lost. When England conquered, Ireland was coerced; when she was defeated, Ireland was relieved; and when Charlestown was taken, the Mutiny and Sugar bills were altered. How necessary, therefore, to assert the rights of Ireland! Surely, you do not expect, like the Jews, redemption to come

from heaven, if you do not help yourselves.

THE ADDRESS.

To assure his Majesty, that the people of Ireland are a free people. That the crown of Ireland is a distinct kingdom, with a parliament of her own, the sole legislature thereof. To assure his Majesty, that by our fundamental laws and franchises—laws and franchises which we, on the part of this nation, do claim and challenge as her birth-right—the subjects of this kingdom cannot be bound, affected, or obliged by any legislature, save only the King, Lords, and Commons of this his Majesty's realm of Ireland; nor is there any other body of men who have power or authority to make laws for the same.

To assure his Majesty, that his Majesty's subjects of Ireland conceive, that in this privilege is contained the very essence of their liberty, and that they tender it as their lives, and accordingly have with one voice declared and protested against the interposition of any other parliament in the legislation of this

country.

To assure his Majesty, that we have seen with concern the parliament of Great Britain advance to make law for Ireland; and our anxiety is kept alive when we perceive the same parliament still persist in that claim, as may appear by recent British acts, which affect to bind Ireland, but to which the subjects of Ireland can pay no attention.

To assure his Majesty, that next to our liberties, we value our connexion with Great Britain, on which we conceive, at this time most particularly, the happiness of both kingdoms does depend, and which, as it is our most sincere wish, so shall it be our principal study to cultivate and render perpetual.

That under this impression, we cannot suggest any means whereby such connection can be so much improved or strengthened, as by a renunciation of the claim of the British parliament to make law for Ireland: a claim useless for England, cruel to Ireland, and without any foundation in law.

After which, the question being put on the Attorney-General's motion to adjourn the consideration of the address to the

first of August, a division ensued,

Ayes, 137 Noes, ... 68

MONDAY, FEBRUARY 26, 1782—VOL. I. PAGE 279.

Mr. Flood, in a short but eloquent speech, stated the Rights of Ireland, and then moved—

Resolved—that the members of this house are the only re-

presentatives of the people of Ireland.

Resolved—That the consent of the Commons is indispensably necessary to render any statute binding.

Rejected—137 to 76.

Recess, from 14th March to 16th April, 1782.

During this recess a total change took place in the British Ministry. Mr. Eden, Secretary to Lord Carlisle, went to London* with his Excellency's resignation of the lieutenancy of

^{*} He there suddenly moved in the House of Commons the Repeal of the 6 Geo. I., but had to withdraw it.

this kingdom. On the 14th of April, his Grace the Duke of PORTLAND arrived in Dublin, and immediately took upon him the government of this kingdom.

TUESDAY, APRIL 16, 1782—VOL. I. PAGE 332.

The Right Honorable John Hely Hutchinson, principal Secretary of State in Ireland, announced a message from the Lord Lieutenant, "that his grace had it in command to inform this house, that his Majesty being concerned to find discontents and jealousies prevailing among his loyal subjects of this country, upon matters of great importance, recommends it to this house to take the same into their most serious consideration, in order to such a final adjustment as may give mutual satisfaction to his kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland." Mr. HUTCH-INSON said he could not avoid congratulating his country on this message, and begged to say a few words, not as an officer of the crown, but as a gentleman of the country. As to the right of this kingdom to be bound by no other laws but those made by the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, he had always asserted it from the seat of judicature as a judge, and in this house as a representative of the people. He should be glad that every man in Great Britain understood what every man understood here, that the claim was not new, it was as old as the invasion of the right.

VOL. I. PAGE 239.

Mr. Grattan then moved, which was resolved nem. con., that an humble address be presented to his Majesty, to return his Majesty the thanks of this house, for his most gracious message to this house, signified by his grace the Lord Lieutenant.

To assure his Majesty of our unshaken attachment to his Majesty's person and government, and of our lively sense of his paternal care in thus taking the lead to administer content to

his Majesty's subjects of Ireland.

That thus encouraged by his royal interposition, we shall beg leave, with all duty and affection, to lay before his Majesty the cause of our discontents and jealousies; to assure his Majesty, that his subjects of Ireland are a free people; that the crown of Ireland is an imperial one, inseparably annexed to the crown of Great Britain, on which connection the interests and happiness of both nations essentially depend; but that

the kingdom of Ireland is a distinct kingdom, with a parliament of her own, the sole legislature thereof; that there is no body of men competent to make laws to bind this nation, except the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland; nor any other parliament which hath any authority or power of any sort whatever in this country, save only the parliament of Ireland. To assure his Majesty that we humbly conceive, that in this right the very essence of our liberties exists—a right which we, on the part of all the people of Ireland, do claim as their birthright, and which we cannot yield but WITH OUR LIVES.

To assure his Majesty that we have seen with concern certain claims advanced by the parliament of Great Britain, in an act entitled, "an act for the better securing the dependency of Ireland;" an act containing matters entirely irreconcilable to the fundamental rights of this nation. That we conceive this act, and the claims it advances, to be the great and principal

cause of the discontents and jealousies of this kingdom.

To assure his Majesty that his Majesty's commons of Ireland do most sincerely wish that all bills which become law in Ireland, should receive the approbation of his Majesty, under the great seal of Britain; but that yet we do consider the practice of suppressing our bills in the councils, or altering the same any where, to be another just cause of discontent and jealousy.

To assure his Majesty that an act entitled, "an act for the better accommodation of his Majesty's forces," being unlimited in its duration, and defective in other instances, but pased in that shape from the particular circumstances of the times, is another just cause of discontent and jealousy in this kingdom.

That we have submitted these principal causes of discontent and jealousy in Ireland, and remain in humble expectation of

redress.

That we have the greatest reliance on his Majesty's wisdom, the most sanguine expectations from his virtuous choice of a chief governor, and great confidence in the wise, auspicious, and constitutional councils, which we see, with satisfaction, his

Majesty has adopted.

That we have moreover a high sense and veneration for the British character, and do therefore conceive that the proceedings in this country, founded as they are in right, and tempered by duty, must have excited the approbation and esteem, instead of wounding the pride of the British nation.

And we beg leave to assure his Majesty, that we are the

more confirmed in this hope, inasmuch as the people of this kingdom have never expressed a desire to share the freedom of England, without declaring a determination to share her fate likewise, standing and falling with the British nation.

Those resolutions passed nem. con.

SATURDAY, MAY 4, 1782—VOL. I. PAGE 352-4.

The Attorney-General (Mr. Scott) said, amongst other things, he did, consequently, as a lawyer, a faithful servant to the crown, a well-wisher to both countries, and an honest Irishman, in the most unqualified, unlimited, and explicit manner, declare his opinion—That Great Britain has no right whatsoever to bind this country by any law. If the tenure of his office was thought to be the supporting of opinions or doctrines injurious to the undoubted rights of Ireland, he held it to be an infamous tenure; and if the parliament of Great Britain were determined to be lords of Ireland, he had no intention to be their villain, in contributing to it.

MONDAY, MAY. 27, 1782—VOL. I. PAGE 354.

Speech of the Duke of Portland, Lord Lieutenant.

The good faith, the generosity, the honor of this nation, afford them the surest pledge of a corresponding disposition on your part to promote and perpetuate the harmony, the stability, and the glory of the empire.

The things so graciously offered by our Sovereign, are the *modification* of Poyning's law, and not only the abridgment of the Mutiny bill, in point of *duration*, but the formation of

it on the model of the English Mutiny bill, and prefacing it with a declaration of right.

After the speech was read,

Mr. Grattan called the attention of the house to the candid manner in which the address had been answered by the Lord Lientenant.

As Great Britain and her ministers have unconditionally agreed to the demands of Ireland, I think the spirit of the nation is called upon to make an unconditional grant to England.

The sea is the element which nature points as the scene of British glory. It is there we can most effectually assist her. Twenty thousand seamen would be a noble support; and we who have been squandering the public money in all the waste of blind extravagance, cannot surely now deem £100,000 too large a sum, when applied to the common defence of the empire. The sum is trifling, but the assistance of 20,000 Irishmen would be great; and gentlemen will now, when they retire to their different counties, have a full opportunity of assisting to raise those men, and of manifesting their zeal for the common cause of Great Britain and Ireland.

Mr. GRATTAN then moved an address, which, after reciting

the various points claimed and conceded, went on-

"That gratified in those particulars, we do assure his Majesty, that no constitutional question between the two nations will any longer exist, which can interrupt their harmony, and that Great Britain, as she has approved of our firmness, so may she rely on our affection.

"That we remember and do repeat our determination, to

stand and fall with the British nation."

The Recorder said, he rose to express his gratitude at the present event. The address did the mover honor, and had his concurrence in every point but one.

THURSDAY, JUNE 6TH, 1782.—VOL. I. PAGE 279.

In committee on the Bill for modifying Poyning's law, Friday, June 7th, 1782.

Mr. Flood said, I oppose this bill, because that under it, it is scarcely possible for parliament to sit at all. By this bill the lord lieutenant and council are required to certify to England such bills, and no other, as have passed both houses of parliament here. By Poyning's law, which remains unrepealed,

parliament cannot sit without a license from his Majesty. The privy council cannot apply for a license till they have some bill ready to certify. This may, therefore, be called an act to prevent the meeting of parliaments. I hope this session may be long, for when this bill passes it may never be succeeded by another.

This bill was proposed twenty years ago, when parliament was weak and impotent; it was then rejected with disdain; and will you now—when you have your constitution in your hands— WHEN YOU HAVE YOUR CONSTITUTION IN YOUR ARMS-will you now accept of such a humiliating condition, and disgrace the cause of your country by such a pitiful expedient. For my own part, though I have always held that Poyning's law, properly explained according to its true construction, was a sufficient guard to our constitution, yet I am willing to give up my private opinion. Let the constitution be settled—I care not by whom. I say the Privy Council have now a power of originating bills. Is it contradicted?—it ought to be taken away—it is not. Suppose then, an arbitrary chief governor, and a venal parliament, (if no such thing ever existed, then I am wrong in the supposition,) suppose they should say, our power of originating bills is not taken away, yours is. And suppose, by an evasion, not very uncommon, they should say, though our power of transmitting any bills that have not passed both houses is taken away, yet our power of transmitting HEADS OF BILLS is not—it is only bills. To what end then have ye struggled, if you leave your constitution liable to greater injuries than it sustained before.

It has been objected, that a repeal of Poyning's law would be going beyond the terms of the address, but this is not logic neither, for the bill at present before us, does itself outstep the

modesty of the address.

Some men, it is true, may do anything, whilst others are circumscribed in very narrow limits. But will you not restore your constitution to what it was before Poyning's law? Your BILLS were transmitted to the king, engrossed on parchment under the great seal of Ireland, and the royal assent or dissent was given to them in open parliament.

Indeed, when you had given up your dignity, wrote them on paper, and called them by the pitiful name of HEADS OF BILLS, it is no wonder they should drop or be smothered in the English council, or any where else. But now that you are asserting your constitution, and declaring that your bills go forward to the

king from both houses, under the great seal of Ireland, will you not also say that they shall also come back from the king, and

be publicly negatived or approved.

I will now propose an amendment to the bill, by inserting after the word "Whereas," the words "doubts have arisen on the construction of the law commonly called Poyning's law, and of the 3rd and 4th of Philip and Mary, explanatory thereof: Be it enacted by the king's most excellent majesty, by and with the advice of the lords spiritual and temporal and commons in this present parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, that the said law of Poynings, and the said 3rd and 4th Philip and Mary, be and stand repealed, save only as follows, that is to say, be it enacted, that no parliament shall be holden in this kingdom, until a license for that purpose be had and obtained from his Majesty, his heirs and successors, under the great seal of Great Britain:

"And that all bills, considerations, causes, ordinances, tenors, and provisions of either or both houses of parliament, shall be of right certified to his Majesty, his heirs and successors, unaltered, under the great seal of Ireland, by the lord lieutenant, or the chief governor or governors, and council of this kingdom for the time being, and that such bills, and no others, being returned unaltered, under the great seal of Great Britain, shall be capable of receiving the royal assent or dissent in parliament, according to his majesty's disposition, either for giving

his assent or dissent to the same respectively,"

And now, Mr. Speaker, if I have a feeling in the inmost pulse in my heart, it is that which tells me that if, after twenty years service, I should pass this question by negligently, I should be a base betrayer of my country—it is that which tells me that the whole earth does not contain a bribe sufficient to make me trifle with the liberties of this land. I do, therefore, wish to subscribe my name to what I now propose, to have them handed down together to posterity, that posterity may know that there was, at least, one man, who disapproved of the temporising bill now before the house, a bill that future parliaments, if they have the power, WILL REFORM—if they have not, with tears will DEPLORE......

Mr. Yelverton declared, that when he introduced the bill, it was to take away every grievance which had been complained of: in his own apprehension that end was answered. He had no objections, however, to terms more amplified. He then moved, that to prevent delays in the summoning of parliaments,

"be it further enacted, that no bill shall be certified into Great Britain, as a cause or consideration for holding a parliament in this kingdom, although no such bill shall have been certified

previous to the meeting thereof."

Mr. Floop—It has been said, that the word Repeal would alarm England, and therefore this mode of altering the law of Poynings by implication is adopted. Is this a time to fear to speak out in fair and open language, after our Sovereign has invited us to state our grievances with a certainty of redress. Have we not demanded a repeal of that law (the 6th of Geo. I.) by which England pretended to bind this country; and shall we now fear to regulate our own constitution, and leave it in a monstrous chaos of things declared and things implied.

We had two hundred years of experience of the evil of leaving a possibility of infringing the constitution—other Straffords may arise, it is our business to guard against them. The octennial bill was altered, yet you passed it. And what say you to the mutiny bill, in which you were the suicides of your own constitution—just at the moment you had accomplished your own purpose and the desires of the nation, you pitifully abandoned all, and with repenting hand abolished your own

works.

I am convinced that nothing will content Ireland but a constitution similar to that of England. You might as well say, that having for one hundred years been deprived of the final judication, it ought not now be restored. But I know no length of time that can run against the constitution.

The question being at length put, that the bill do pass, with Mr. Yelverton's amendment, was agreed to without a

division.

TUESDAY, JUNE 11, 1782.—VOL. 1, PAGE 406.

Further Debate on the Bill for Repealing 6 Geo. I.

Mr. Flood said—Nothing ever was more judicious than the conduct of Great Britain on this occasion. She was so embarrassed abroad, and you were so strong at home, that she could not deny the repeal of the declaratory law. Yet it must ever be her wish to retain the principle of it, because it is the principle of power, which no nation has ever relinquished while it could maintain it. What then has she done? By seeming to yield unconditionally to you, she seized on the generous credu-

lity of your nature, and took full advantage of a change in her own administration. Her first step was bold, in order to strike your imaginations with something that seemed to be decisive. She resolved that the declaratory law ought to be repealed. She did not say, however, that it ought to be repealed, as having been a false and erroneous declaration of law. Far from it; not a man in the British parliament held such an idea. The very mover and seconder of the resolution said the contrary.

It is the first principle of law, that a declaratory act only declares the law to be what it was before—that is to say, that it only declares, and that it does not alter the law. What follows? That as making a declaratory act does not alter law, so neither can the mere unmaking of such an act alter law; or in other words, it follows, that if a declaratory act is not pronounced to have been an erroneous declaration of law, the bare repeal of it can do no other than leave the law in that state in which the declaratory act did declare it to have been before such declaratory act passed.

It was on this question, as to whether the English act, 6th Geo. I. should simply be repealed, or an entire renunciation be demanded from England, of her assumption to legislate for Ireland, that Mr. Grattan made his great and only mistake. He estimated the intentions of England too generously, and his opinions prevailed with the house.

However, that very year was not over, when what the Irish parliament in their moderation would not ask, the English parliament in their fear, set about conceding. On the 19th December, 1782, notice was taken in the latter body of an Irish cause having been decided in the King's Bench in England. Mr. Secretary Townshend answered that it was an old cause—eighteen years in that court—and that there would be no more. Next day it was declared that the lord lieutenant had written from Ireland (in a fright) on the subject, and the secretary gave notice for the 22nd of January, 1783, that he would bring in a bill, the object of which he thus stated, when bringing it forward:—

To lull all jealousies—to lay all doubts and disputes about constitutional points fast asleep, so that they might never wake again—was the object he had in view in the motion he was going to make; and he hoped that Ireland would rest satisfied, that "in no change of affairs would England ever retract that faith, which in his opinion she had pledged, when she repealed the 6 Geo. I., fully to surrender all legislative and judicial authority over Ireland."

Late in the debate a Mr. Macdonald asked, was there any supposable case wherein, after the passing of this bill, the legislature of Great Britain could exercise a jurisdiction over Ireland.

Mr. Secretary Townshend said there was none; that the idea was given up in all cases whatsoever.

The following was the title of the bill, and subjoined is its chief clause:—

23 Geo. III. Cap. 28.

An act for preventing and removing all doubts which have arisen or might arise, concerning the exclusive rights of the parliament and courts of Ireland in matters of legislation and judicature, and to prevent appeals being heard in Great Britain.

Be it enacted—That the right claimed by the people of Ireland to be bound only by laws enacted by his Majesty and the parliament of that kingdom in all cases whatever, and to have all actions and suits at law or in equity which may be instituted in that kingdom, decided in his Majesty's courts therein, finally and without appeal from thence, shall be and is hereby declared to be established and ascertained for ever, and shall at no time hereafter be questioned or questionable.

The words "for ever" in the foregoing clause, were on special motion adopted instead of "for the future," being considered more comprehensive and decided.

The only subsisting restrictions on Irish legislative independence, after the passing of the measures of 1782 and 1783, were those under what was called the "modification" of Poyning's law. The author of "Collectanea Politica" thus describes them:—

It is true, that both Lords and Commons have attempted, and gained an approach towards their ancient rights of begining bills, not in that name, but under the name of heads of bills, to be transmitted to the council; but as the council are the first beginners of acts of parliament, they have assumed a power of modelling these also. The legislature of Ireland is, therefore, very complicated. First, the Privy Council of Ireland, who, though they may take the hint from the Lords or Commons, frame the bill; next, the King and council of England, who have a power of alteration, and really make it a bill unalterable, by sending it under the great seal of England; then the two Houses of Lords and Commons, who must agree in the whole, or reject the whole; and, if it passes all these, it is presented to the king for his assent; which, indeed, is but nominal, as it was before obtained.

This was the state of things up to the Union. That measure, it is needless to say, put an end to our legislative independence. Fraud, force, perjury, corruption, and bloodshed were the means by which the Union was effected—and they have, one or other, been constantly employed in its maintainance ever since. All these iniquitous means are now, however, fast failing and breaking down; and the Irish popular mind is becoming every day more and more united, concentrated, and irresistible in its mighty but peaceful onward movement towards the glorious achievement of the full measure of our ancient liberties and rights.

We now subjoin the Addendum spoken of at page 96.

ADDENDUM.

DUBLIN VOLUNTEERS.

"At a Meeting of the Corps of the Dublin Volunteers, at the Eagle, Eustace-street, on Friday, the 1st March, 1782,

"His grace the DUKE OF LEINSTER in the Chair.

"Resolved—That Great Britain and Ireland are, and ought to be, inseparably connected, by being under the dominion of the same King, and enjoying equal liberty and similar constitutions.

"That it is the duty of every good citizen, to maintain the connexion of the two countries, and the freedom and indepen-

dence of this kingdom.

"That the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland ONLY, are competent to make laws binding the subjects of this realm; and that we will not obey, or give operation to any laws, save only those enacted by the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, whose rights and privileges, jointly and severally, we are determined to support with our lives and fortunes.

"Signed by order,
"John Williams, Secretary."

LAWYERS' CORPS, 28th FEBRUARY, 1782.

"COL. EDWARD WESTBY in the Chair.

"Resolved unanimously—That the people of this country are now called upon to declare, that the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, are the ONLY power competent to make laws to bind this kingdom.

"Signed by order,
"SAMUEL ADAMS, Secretary."

SLANE VOLUNTEERS.

"At a Meeting of the Corps of Volunteers, of the Barony of Slane, County Meath, assembled on their Parade, 3rd March, 1782, the following Resolution was unanimously agreed to"Resolved—That no power on earth can make laws to bind the people of this land, but the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland.

"Signed by order,

"Francis Adams, Secretary."

WATERFORD VOLUNTEERS.

"At a full Meeting of the different Volunteer Corps of the City of Waterford, the Cavalry, Artillery, No. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7, assembled by public notice, on the 3rd day of March, 1782,

"CAPTAIN HANNIBAL WM. DOBBYN in the Chair.

"Resolved unanimously—That we conceive that the people of this country are now called upon to declare, that the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, are the only power competent to make laws to bind this kingdom."

Westmeath resolutions, signed by the Sheriff, WILLIAM FETHERSTONE, Esq.; by the Foreman of the Grand Jury, CUTHBERT FETHERSTONE, Esq.; by LORD DELVIN, the father of the present unhappy LORD WESTMEATH; and by the leading Protestant gentry of the county—

"WESTMEATH GRAND JURY.

"We, the High Sheriff and Grand Jury of the County of Westmeath, at a General Assizes held at Mullingar, in and for said County, on Monday, the 4th day of March, 1782,

"Resolved unanimously—That the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, are the ONLY power competent to make laws

to bind this kingdom.

"That the numerous absentees of this kingdom, from the immense sums annually remitted to them, are highly detrimental, and very much contribute to the impoverishing the NATION—and that the above EVIL is every day increasing, even to an alarming degree.

"That a tax upon absentees would very much contribute to

the prosperity, honour, and happiness of this kingdom, and that the said tax should be appropriated to national purposes.

"That we consider the right of private judgment in matters of religion, to be equally sacred in others as in ourselves.

"That we rejoice in the relaxation of the penal laws against our Roman Catholic fellow-subjects; and that we conceive it to be a measure fraught with the happiest consequences to the union and prosperity of the inhabitants of Ireland."

The following pithy resolutions were passed by the

INDEPENDENT DUBLIN VOLUNTEERS.

"At a quarterly Meeting of the Corps of Independent Dublin Volunteers, held at the Eagle, in Eustace-street, Dublin, on Tuesday, 5th March, 1782,

"MAJOR CANNIER in the Chair.

"Whereas, the people of Ireland are a free people, with a parliament of their own, to whose authority alone they are subject: now we, the Corps of Independent Dublin Volunteers, associated for the defence of the realm, the law, and the constitution, do agree unanimously to the following resolutions, for the rule of our conduct, viz.—

"Resolved—That we do not acknowledge the jurisdiction of any parliament, save only the King, Lords and Commons of

Ireland.

"Resolved—That we will in every capacity, oppose the execution of any statute imposed on us by the pretended authority of the British parliament.

"Resolved—That we will support with our lives and fortunes the parliament of Ireland, in declaring and asserting its rights.

"Signed by order,

"S. CANNIER, Chairman."

This is the resolution of a Meeting of the entire County of Meath, duly convened by the High Sheriff, and at which he presided.

"COUNTY OF MEATH.

"At a Meeting of the Grand Jury and Freeholders of the County of Meath, at Trim, convened by the Sheriff, on Thursday the 7th March, 1782, the following Resolution was unanimously agreed to:— "Resolved—That no power on earth can make laws to bind the people of this land, but the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland.

"HAM. GEORGES, Sheriff."

We next give an extract from the resolutions passed at Belfast, on the 7th of March, 1782.

"TOWN HOUSE, BELFAST, March 7th, 1782.

"At a very numerous Meeting of the Inhabitants, called by a public notice, dated 4th inst. and signed by twentyfive of the principal Inhabitants,

"THOMAS SINCLAIR, Esq. in the Chair.

"Resolved unanimously—That if any Irishman has been or shall be hardy enough to assert, directly or indirectly, that any body of men, other than the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland had, have, or ought to have, a right to make laws to bind this realm, in any case whatsoever, every such man insults the majesty of the king of Ireland, the dignity of its parliament, and the whole body of its people; is an enemy to this kingdom, and ought to be reprobated as such, by every friend of Ireland.

"Resolved unanimously—That it be, and it is hereby most earnestly recommended to all the inhabitants of this province, to assemble in their several towns and parishes, to deliberate on those matters, and, in case they shall approve thereof, to enter into similar associations, as we are fully convinced that nothing is now wanting to establish and secure the freedom and prosperity of Ireland, but the avowed union of its people.

"THOMAS SINCLAIR, Chairman."

"COUNTY OF WATERFORD.

- "At a Meeting of the Grand Jury of said County, at the General Assizes, held at Blackfryars, in said County, the 8th day of March, 1782,
 - "Resolved-That the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland,

are the ONLY power competent to make laws to bind this king-dom.

"By order of the Grand Jury,
"JOHN BERESFORD, Foreman."

The next is from Connaught.

"GORT LIGHT DRAGOONS.

"At a full meeting of the Gort Light Dragoons, the 9th March, 1782, pursuant to notice,

"MAJOR JAMES GALBRAITH in the Chair,

"Resolved—That it is now very expedient, and we conceive the people of this country are called upon to declare, that the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, are the ONLY power competent to make laws to bind this kingdom.

"Signed by order,
"JAMES O'FLANAGAN, Secretary."

The next is from Wexford.

"WEXFORD INDEPENDENTS.

"At a full meeting of the Wexford Independent Corps, on Friday, the 8th March, 1782,

"Resolved unanimously—That we conceive that the people of this country are now called upon to declare, that the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland are the ONLY power competent to make laws to bind this kingdom.

"WM. HUGHES, Adjutant."

We return again to

"ULSTER.

"At a meeting of the True Blue Volunteers of Londonderry, at the Town Hall, on Monday, the 11th of March, 1782, the following Resolutions were agreed to:

" CAPTAIN WILLIAM LECKY in the Chair:

"Resolved unanimously... That we conceive that the people of this country are now called upon to declare, that the King,

Lords, and Commons of Ireland, are the ONLY power competent

to make laws to bind this kingdom.

"Resolved unanimously—That if any Irishman has been, or shall be, hardly enough to assert, that any body of men other than the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, had, have, or ought to have, a right to make laws to bind this realm, in any case whatsoever, every such man insults the Majesty of the King of Ireland, the dignity of its parliament, and the whole body of its people; is an enemy to this kingdom, and ought to be reprobated as such, by every friend of Ireland.

"WILLIAM LECKY, Chairman."

The next extract is from a meeting in Galway.

"CLANRICARDE CAVALRY.

"At a meeting of the Clanricarde Cavalry, at Loughrea, the 12th day of March, 1782,

" COLONEL PETER DALY in the Chair,

"Resolved unanimously—That we conceive that the people of this country are now called upon to declare, that the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, are the ONLY power competent to make laws to bind this kingdom.

"Signed by order,
"CHARLES KELLY, Sec."

Resolutions signed by Hopton Scott, Esq., the High Sheriff, by the Honourable John Stratford, the Foreman, Honourable Benjamin O'Neill Stratford, Sir James Tynte, Bart., and by the rest of the Grand Jury of the

"COUNTY OF WICKLOW.

"We, the High Sheriff and Grand Jury of the County of Wicklow, at a General Assizes held at Wicklow, in and for said County, on Tuesday the 12th day of March, 1782,

"Honourable JOHN STRATFORD in the Chair,

"Resolved unanimously—That the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, are the ONLY constitutional power competent to bind this kingdom,"

"COUNTY OF CAVAN.

"At a meeting at large of the County of Cavan, convened at the Requisition of the High Sheriff, at Cavan, on Wednesday, March the 13th, 1782, the following Declaration was unanimously agreed to:

"We declare, that we will pay obedience to those laws ONLY, which are made by our own legislature, the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland; as the very terms of our original compact with Great Britain are, that we shall possess and exercise the full enjoyment of the British Constitution. As external greatness and constitutional extension were the objects of Great Britain in that compact; as external security and constitutional liberty were the objects of Ireland;—whatever leads to separation on the part of the latter, or infringement on the part of the former, is a violation to both.

"As we feel ourselves, equally with Great Britain, bound by every treaty of the King, we feel ourselves, equally with Great Britain, entitled to every benefit derived from them. We therefore claim, as free and equal advantages of trade and commerce with every nation, as Great Britain herself enjoys; and we pledge ourselves to our country and to each other, to exert every constitutional means to support this our solemn

declaration.

"Signed by order,
"George Montgomery, Chairman."

"GOLDSMITHS' CORPS,

- " Commanded by the Right Hon. the Earl of CHARLEMONT,
- "Associated in defence of this Kingdom, and its natural Rights, have unanimously agreed to the following Resolutions:
- "Resolved—That we will not acknowledge the jurisdiction of any parliament, save only the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland; and that we will, in every capacity, support them with our lives and fortunes, in asserting our rights, against any pretended authority of the British parliament.

"Signed by order,
"J. Hardy, Secretary."

"CONNAUGHT VOLUNTEERS.

"At a meeting of the Delegates from 59 Volunteer Corps of the Province of Connaught, at Ballinasloe, on Friday the 15th of March, 1782,

"The EARL OF CLANRICARDE in the Chair,

" The following Resolutions were entered into unanimously:

"Resolved—That no power on earth has a right to make laws to bind this kingdom, except the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland; and that we will resist with our lives and fortunes, the execution of any other laws; as we consider, to be governed by a foreign legislature, over which we have no controul—ABSOLUTE SLAVERY.

"Resolved—That we are perfectly convinced, there is not a man in this kingdom, who entertains a wish so ruinous to the prosperity of both nations; on the contrary, we declare for ourselves, and we have the fullest conviction of its being the universal sentiment of the People of Ireland, that the present measures are intended to remove every object of jealousy, that we may clasp our sister nation to our bosom, and cement an indissoluble union between us;—attached to her by every tie of interest and affection that cements nations, surrounded as she is by a host of enemies, we are resolved to share her liberty and share her fate.

"Signed by order,
"JAMES JOICE, Secretary."

"COUNTY OF LEITRIM.

"At a meeting of the Freeholders of the County of Leitrim, at Carrick-on-Shannon, convened by the High-Sheriff of said County, on Saturday the 16th of March, 1782, the following Resolution was unanimously agreed to:

"Resolved unanimously—That we conceive that the people of this country are now called upon to declare, that the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, are the ONLY power competent to make laws to bind this kingdom.

"Signed,
"PATRICK CULLEN, Sheriff."

COUNTY OF KILDARE—ATHY VOLUNTEERS.

"At a full meeting of the Athy Volunteers, March 17th, 1782,

"CAPTAIN DAKER in the Chair,

" The following Resolution was unanimously agreed to:

"Resolved-That the King, Lords, and Commons, of Ireland, only, are competent to make laws to bind this kingdom.

"Signed by order,
"THOMAS HAYES, Secretary."

"COUNTY WATERFORD MEETING.

- "At a numerous meeting of the Gentlemen, Clergy, and Freeholders of the County of Waterford, assembled at Dungarvan, on Monday, the 18th of March, 1782, pursuant to notice given by the High Sheriff for that purpose,
 - "ROBERT UNIACKE, Esq. High Sheriff, in the Chair,
- "Resolved—That the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, are the ONLY power competent to make laws to bind this kingdom.

"ROBERT UNIACKE, Sheriff."

Let Irishmen see how the County of Fermanagh spoke out in those days.

"COUNTY FERMANAGH GRAND JURY.

- "We, the Grand Jury of the County of Fermanagh, being constitutionally assembled at the present Assizes, held for the county of Fermanagh, at Enniskillen, this 18th day of March, 1782, think ourselves called upon at this interesting moment to make our solemn declarations relative to the rights and liberties of Ireland:
- "We pledge ourselves to this our country, that we never will pay obedience to any law, made, or to be made, to bind Ireland, except those laws which are and shall be made by the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland.

"Signed by order,
"ARTHUR COLE HAMILTON, Foreman."

"LURGAN, MARCH 18th, 1782.

" At a meeting of the Inhabitants of the Town of Lurgan and its neighbourhood, convened by public notice at the Church,

"ADAM CUPPAGE, Esq. in the Chair,

" The following Resolutions were unanimously entered into:

"First—That the present alarming crisis calls on every man publicly and unequivocally to declare his sentiments relative

to the rights of this kingdom.

"Second—That we are sensible of our interests being inseparable from those of Great Britain; but that we do not hold ourselves bound by, or amenable to any statutes, except such as are enacted by the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, in parliament assembled.

"Signed by order,
"RICHARD EUSTACE, Secretary."

- "At a general Meeting of the Freemen and Freeholders of the City of Dublin, convened by the High Sheriffs, at the Tholsel, on Tuesday the 19th March, 1782,
 - "JAMES CAMPBELL and DAVID DICK, Esqrs. in the Chair,
 - " The following Address was unanimously agreed to:
- "To Sir Samuel Bradstreet, Bart. and Travers Hartley, Esq., Representatives in parliament for the city of Dublin.

"GENTLEMEN,

"As men justly entitled to, and firmly resolved to obtain a free constitution, we require you, our trustees, to exert yourselves in the most strenuous manner, to procure an unequivocal declaration—that the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, are the ONLY power competent to make laws to bind this country.

"And we solemnly pledge ourselves to you and to our country, that we will support the representatives of the people at the risk of our lives and fortunes, in every constitutional measure which may be pursued for the attainment of this great national object. Be assured, gentlemen, that your zeal upon this occasion, will insure you a continuance of our esteem and regard.

"JAMES CAMPBELL, Sheriffs."

"SKREEN VOLUNTEERS.

"Skreen Corps of Dragoons, or Mounted Infantry—
"March 20th, 1782.

"COLONEL J. DILLON in the Chair,

"Resolved unanimously.—That no power on earth is competent to make laws to bind Ireland, except the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland; and that we will in every instance uniformly and strenuously oppose the execution of any statutes or laws, except such as are made by the authority above mentioned.

"Signed by order,

"John Wilkinson, Secretary."

"BALTINGLASS MEETING.

"At a meeting of Delegates assembled at Baltinglass, pursuant to public notice, on the 20th March, 1782,

"The Earl of Aldborough in the Chair,

" The following Resolutions were unanimously agreed to:

"Resolved—That we are determined to resist with our lives and fortunes, the operation of any law that is dictated by a FOREIGN legislature, as we know, and will acknowledge no other but that of the King of Great Britain, and the Lords and Commons of Ireland.

"That being united to the imperial crown of Great Britain, and particularly with her in every calamitous event, so likewise we consider ourselves entitled to share in every fortuitous circumstance or prosperity that can attend her—to the same rights and freedom of trade, without which jealousies must ever subsist between the sister kingdoms; for unless our constitution stands on the same basis, it is impossible our interests should, as we sincerely wish, be inseparably connected and permanent.

"Aldborough, Chairman."

"BIRR MEETING.

"At a meeting of Delegates from seventeen Corps of Volunteers, assembled at Birr, the 20th March, 1782,

"SIR WM. PARSONS, Baronet, in the Chair,

"Resolved—That Ireland is an independent kingdom, and can only be bound by laws enacted by the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland.

"Signed by order,
"Thomas Berry, Secretary."

"MEATH VOLUNTEERS.

"At a meeting of Delegates from the Volunteer Corps of the County of Meath, at Trim, March 21st, 1782, convened at the requisition of Colonels Rowley and Lowther, who were both present,

"The EARL of MORNINGTON in the Chair,

"Resolved—That we will in every capacity and situation of life, co-operate with our fellow-citizens and fellow-soldiers, the Ulster Volunteers, assembled at Dungannon, in all constitutional efforts towards a redress of the grievances, and an estab-

lishment of the rights of Ireland.

"Resolved—That a common participation in every advantage of the British constitution, being not only the unalienable right of Ireland, but also the sole tie which can attach the interests and affections of this kingdom to Great Britain, it were equally injurious to the generosity and wisdom of the British character, to suppose that our sister country can look with a jealous eye upon that truly constitutional spirit, which now so happily pervades Ireland; a spirit which, by promoting a temperate and seasonable assertion of the freedom of this kingdom, tends to secure the union, strength, and honorable tranquillity of the British empire.

"Mornington, Chairman."

"KILKENNY INDEPENDENTS.

"At a meeting of the five companies of Kilkenny Independents, held the 22nd day of March, 1782,

"MAJOR ROCHE in the Chair,

"The following Resolutions were unanimously agreed to, and ordered to be published:

"Resolved—That the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, are the ONLY power competent to make laws to bind this kingdom.

"Resolved—That we do solemnly pledge ourselves to support this exclusive right of the parliament of Ireland, with our

lives and fortunes.

"Resolved—That Great Britain and Ireland are and ought to be inseparably connected, by being under the dominion of the same king, and enjoying equal liberty and similar constitutions.

"Signed by order,
"VAL. COGHLAN, Secretary."

"MONAGHAN.

"At a meeting of the Inhabitants of the Town and neighbourhood of Monaghan, convened by public notice, signed by twenty-eight of the principal inhabitants, March 22nd, 1782,

"Mr. Forster in the Chair,

"Resolved—That we do most heartily approve of the resolutions of the Volunteer Delegates, assembled at Dungannon, the 15th of February last, particularly that which declares that the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, are the ONLY power competent to make laws to bind this kingdom. To no other laws will we submit, and it is with astonishment we behold our sister kingdom retaining claims of a contrary tendency—claims which are, and must be, useless to her, and insulting to us.

"WM. FORSTER."

COUNTY OF TYRONE.

"At a meeting of the Nobility, Representatives, Freeholders, and Inhabitants of the County Tyrone, at Omagh, convened by the Sheriff, the 22nd of March, 1782, the following Declaration and Resolutions were unanimously agreed to—

"RIGHT HON. LORD BELMORE in the Chair:

"We, the nobility, representatives, freeholders, and inhabibitants of the county of Tyrone, thinking it now particularly necessary to declare our sentiments respecting the fundamental and undoubted rights of this nation; and desirous by a seasonable explanation to terminate any anxious jealousy, and to prevent the possibility of any future contest; do declare we will, in every situation in life, and with all the means in our power, assert and maintain the constitutional rights of this kingdom, to be governed by such laws ONLY as are enacted by the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland; and that we will in every instance uniformly and strenuously oppose the execution of any statute, except such as derive authority from said parliament, pledging ourselves to our country and to each other, to support with our lives and fortunes this our solemn declaration; and further we bind ourselves, that we will at all times renew this necessary vindication of our rights, till such time as they shall be explicitly acknowledged, and firmly established by the authority of parliament.

"Finally we declare, that it is our wish to remove every jealousy between Great Britain and Ireland, and to prove to the world our unalterable affection to our sister kingdom; surrounded as she is by a host of enemies, we are determined

to share her liberty and share her fate.

"Belmore, Chairman."

"ANTRIM MEETING.

"At a meeting of the High Sheriff and Grand Jury of the County of Antrim, at an Assizes held at Carrickfergus, March 22nd, 1782, the following Resolutions were unanimously agreed to:

"That we think it expedient and indispensably necessary now, to express our sentiments on certain points of undoubted fundamental justice and rights, due to the subjects of this kingdom; desirous by a seasonable explanation of our minds, to terminate every anxious jealously, and to prevent the possibility of any future contest between our sister kingdom of Great Britain and us, with whom we desire to live on the purest terms of amity and most cordial friendship; our interest being inseparable, being the same blood and people, and having the same charters of liberty and constitution granted to our ancestors, when they removed from England to Ireland, and being convinced that such a unity of right will increase and establish the strength of the whole British empire; we therefore do declare, that we will in every situation of life, by every constitutional means in our power, assert and support the independence of this nation on any other legislative body than the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland. We will endeavour to procure our free and equal commerce to be confirmed, and the army raised and paid by Ireland, to be regulated by a limited law of that kingdom, during the time they are provided for by the Irish parliament, and no longer. We will endeavour to have the liberty of the subject secured, the administration of justice impartially promoted by the independence of the judges, holding their employments upon a better and more certain tenure—fully determined by every constitutional means to support the legal rights of Ireland.

"Resolved—That we think that an inseparable connexion between this country and Great Britain, but a distinct legislation, essentially necessary, not only for the prosperity of this

kingdom, but for that of the empire at large.

"A. M'MANUS, Sheriff."

"COUNTY OF MAYO.

- "At a meeting of the Gentlemen, Clergy, and Freeholders of the County of Mayo, convened by the High Sheriff, and of the Grand Jury of said county, at Spring Assizes, at Castlebar, on Sunday, the 24th March, 1782,
 - "CHARLES COSTELLO, Esq. High Sheriff, in the Chair,
- "The following Resolutions were entered into unanimously:
- "Resolved—That no power on earth has a right to make laws to bind this kingdom, but the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland; and that any Irishman who directly or indirectly

DARES to deny that position, is an enemy to his country, and can only be sheltered from its resentment by the contemptibility of his character,"

The next is from Bandon, and evidences a spirit we trust to see again.

"BANDON MEETING.

" At a meeting of the Volunteer Corps of Bandon Cavalry, and Bandon Independent Company, convened by their respective Commanding Officers, at Bandon, the 25th of March, 1782,

"Francis Bernard, Esq. Colonel of the Bandon Independent Company, in the Chair,

"Resolved unanimously—That we look upon religious toleration as highly advantageous to society—as powerfully aidant to civil liberty—as necessary for the strength and happiness of a state; and we feel the greatest joy at the relaxation of those severe laws which affected the Roman Catholic inhabitants of this kingdom; a measure most wise, most political, most necessary, and which must be attended with the happiest consequences, and produce a perfect union among all the people of Ireland.

"Resolved unanimously—That we are attached to our most gracious Sovereign, with the most zealous and unshaken lovalty; and that our firm resolution is, to risk our lives and properties in defence of his crown, person, and dignity.

"Resolved unanimously-That we regard our fellow-subjects of Great Britain with the most sincere affection, and wish always to maintain the closest connexion with them, convinced that such is absolutely necessary for the strength and preservation of both kingdoms; but as we are willing to share their fate in the extremities of danger, we are resolved to enjoy the free constitution they boast, and to which we are equally entitled; and resolve that no power on earth can make laws to bind Ireland, except the King, Lords, and Commons thereof.

"Signed,

"S. STAWELL, Col. Bandon Cavalry.

"F. Bernard, Col. Bandon Infantry."

LONDONDERRY MEETING.

"At a Common Hall, held pursuant to public notice, March 28th, 1782,

"ROBERT FAIRLY, Esq. Mayor, in the Chair,

"Resolved unanimously—We, the Mayor and Freemen of Londonderry, convinced that at this period it is incumbent on all people of Ireland, publicly to assert the unalienable rights of this nation, and that a seasonable exertion may produce such explanation as will remove the possibility of future contest with Great Britain, do declare, that we will in every situation in life, and with all means in our power, maintain the rights of this kingdom, to be governed only by the King, Lords, and Commons thereof; and that we will, in every instance, uniformly and strenuously oppose the execution of any statutes which do not derive their authority from the King, Lords, and Commons aforesaid.

"Resolved unanimously—That it is our earnest wish to preserve, and by removing all jealousies perpetuate, an intimate and constitutional connexion with Britain; and that surrounded as she is by an host of enemies, we are determined to share her liberties and share her fate.

"ROBERT FAIRLY, Mayor."

On the same day, the meeting of which we insert the following resolutions, was held in the City of Cork.

"GLANMIRE UNION.

"At a monthly meeting of the Glanmire Union, on the 28th March, 1782,

"COLONEL MANNIX in the Chair,

"Resolved unanimously—That the people of Ireland are a free people, with a parliament of their own, to whose authority alone they are subject; now we, the Glanmire Union, associated for the defence of the realm, the laws, and the constitution, do agree to the following resolutions:—

"Resolved unanimously—That we do not acknowledge the jurisdiction of any parliament, save only the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland; and that we think the people of this country are at this time particularly called upon to make such

declaration.

"Resolved—" That we will in every capacity oppose the execution of any statute imposed upon us by the pretended authority of the British parliament.

"HENRY MANNIX, Colonel."

That spirit is re-echoed on the same day, by the

"LAGAN VOLUNTEERS.

" At a meeting of the Lagan Volunteers, March 28th, 1782,

" LIEUT-COLONEL WALKER in the Chair,

"The Dungannon Resolutions of the 15th of February last, being read, and severally proposed:

"Resolved unanimously—That we pledge ourselves to each other, and to our country, to persevere in every constitutional means of obtaining a redress of the grievances mentioned in the Dungannon Resolutions, and until the independence of Ireland, under the King of Great Britain, be firmly established and unequivocally explained.

We find the following, bearing date the next day, the 29th of March, 1782,

"COUNTY OF LONDONDERRY.

- "We, the High Sheriffs and Grand Jury of the City and County of Londonderry, assembled at an Assizes, held the 29th day of March, 1782, in the Town Hall of the city of Londonderry,
- "Thinking it now peculiarly necessary to declare our sentiments respecting the fundamental and undoubted rights of this nation; and desirous, by seasonable explanation, to terminate an anxious jealously, and to prevent the possibility of any future contest; do declare, that we will in every situation of life, and with all means in our power, assert and maintain the constitutional rights of this kingdom, to be governed by such laws only, as are enacted by the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland; and that we will in every instance uniformly and strenuously oppose the execution of any statutes, except such as derive their authority from said parliament; pledging our-

selves to our country and to each other, to support with our lives and fortunes, this our solemn declaration. And further we bind ourselves, that we will yearly renew this necessary vindication of our rights, till such time as they shall be explicitly acknowledged, and firmly established by the authority of parliament."

"MICHAEL Ross, WILLIAM LENNOX, Sheriffs."

And on the next day the following from Carlow-

"COUNTY OF CARLOW.

" At Lent Assizes, March, 1782,

"We, the High Sheriff and Grand Jury of the County of Carlow, think the duty we owe to our country and ourselves, calls upon us to declare unanimously,

"That the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, are the ONLY power competent to make laws to bind this kingdom, and that every attempt by any other body of men to exercise this right, is unconstitutional, illegal, and a grievance.

"RICHARD MERCER, Sheriff. "ROBERT POWER, Foreman."

The spirit of Galway shines in the annexed Resolutions.

"COUNTY GALWAY.

" Spring Assizes, 1782.

"At a full meeting of the Grand Jury, Gentlemen, Clergy, and Freeholders of the County of Galway, assembled pursuant to public notice from the High Sheriff, at the County Hall in Galway, March 31st, 1782,

"JOHN KELLY, of Castlekelly, Esq. in the Chair,

"Resolved—that the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, are the only power competent to make laws to bind this kingdom, and that we will resist the execution of any other with our lives and fortunes.

"Resolved—That if force constitutes right, the people of this country have a right to use force against the man who dares to maintain doctrine subversive of their constitution; but as the object is beneath the dignity of the national resentment, we shall only bid such a man beware how he hereafter trifles with the rights of his country, and provokes the vengeance of a people determined to be free."

We insert the following, not only from the intrinsic merit of the resolution, but from the name of the chairman.

"COUNTY OF THE CITY OF WATERFORD.

"We, the Grand Jury of the County of the City of Waterford, at Spring Assizes, 1782, assembled, think the duty we owe to our country and ourselves, calls upon us at this time to declare—

"That the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland are the only power competent to make laws to bind this kingdom; and that every attempt by any other body of men to exercise this right, is unconstitutional, illegal, and a grievance.

"SIMON NEWPORT, Foreman."

The following from the county of Wexford, was passed about the same time, though it was printed without a date.

"COUNTY OF WEXFORD.

"We, the High Sheriff, Foreman, and Grand Jury of the County of Wexford, this day assembled,

"Thinking it now peculiarly necessary to declare our sentiments respecting the fundamental and undoubted rights of this nation, and desirous by a seasonable explanation to terminate an anxious jealously, and to prevent the possibility of any future

contest, do unanimously declare—

"That we will in every situation of life, and with all means in our power, assert and maintain the constitutional rights of this kingdom to be governed by such laws only, as are enacted by the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland; and that we will in every instance uniformly and strenuously oppose the execution of any statutes, except such as derive authority from said parliament.

"HENRY BROWNRIGG, Sheriff.

"HENRY THOMAS HAUGHTON, Foreman."

"COUNTY OF LIMERICK.

"We, the Grand Jury of the County of Limerick, at Spring Assizes, 1782, assembled, think the duty we owe to our country and ourselves, makes it indispensably necessary for us unanimously to declare,

"That the members of the House of Commons derive their power solely from, and are the only representatives of the people; and that a denial of this position would be to abdicate the

representation.

"That the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, are the ONLY power competent to make laws to bind this kingdom; and that an attempt of any other to usurp such right, is subversive of our constitutional liberties, illegal, and a grievance.

"John Grady, Foreman."

"COUNTY OF CORK.

"Resolutions of the Grand Jury of the County of Cork, at Spring Assizes, 1782.

"Resolved—That we think it necessary to declare, that no power has a right to make laws for this kingdom, save only the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland; and that we shall not consider ourselves to be bound by any other; and that we will with our lives and fortunes maintain and defend the Irish parliament in such a declaration of rights, and in any measure that they may think proper to support it.

"RICHARD TOWNSEND, Foreman."

"CITY OF KILKENNY.

"We, the Grand Jury of the County of the City of Kilhenny, at Spring Assizes, 1782, assembled, conscious that every citizen who wishes to support the glorious cause of liberty, should at this critical juncture declare his sentiments, have unanimously entered into the following Resolutions:

"Resolved—That the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, are the ONLY power that have a right to make laws to bind Ireland; and we will, to the utmost of our power, resist the execution of any other laws.

"T. BUTLER, Foreman."

"COUNTY OF KILKENNY.

"At a meeting of the High Sheriff and Grand Jury of the County Kilhenny, at Lent Assizes, 1782.

"We do declare for ourselves, that we deny the authority of the British parliament to make laws to bind this kingdom, and that we will not obey, but resist the execution of any laws so made; and that we are ready to support our parliament in declaring its exclusive rights, with our lives and fortunes.

"Resolved unanimously—That Great Britain and Ireland are, and ought to be, inseparably connected, by being governed by the same king, and enjoying equal liberty and similar con-

stitutions.

"JAMES KEARNEY, Sheriff. "H. BLUNT, Foreman."

"COUNTY OF MONAGHAN.

"We, the High Sheriff, Foreman, and Grand Jury of the County of Monaghan, this day assembled,

"Thinking it now peculiarly necessary to declare our sentitiments respecting the fundamental and undoubted rights of this nation, and desirous by a seasonable explanation to terminate an anxious jealousy, and to prevent the possibility of any future contest, do unanimously declare, that we will, in every situation of life, and with all means in our power, assert and maintain the constitutional rights of this kingdom, to be governed by such laws only as are enacted by the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland; and that we will in every instance uniformly and strenuously oppose the execution of any statutes, except such as derive authority from said parliament.

"THOMAS CORRY, Sheriff.
"SAMUEL MADDEN, Foreman."

"COUNTY OF TIPPERARY.

"We, the Grand Jury of the County of Tipperary, at Spring Assizes, 1782, assembled, think the duty we owe to our country and ourselves, calls upon us thus to declare"That the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, are the ONLY power competent to make laws to bind this kingdom; and that every attempt by any other body of men to exercise this right, is unconstitutional, illegal, and a grievance.

"Francis Matthew, Sheriff."

"COUNTY OF KILKENNY.

"IVERK VOLUNTEERS, commanded by the Right Hon. John Ponsonby, Colonel.

"At a full meeting of the Iverk Volunteers at Bessboro', on Easter Monday, 1782,

MAJOR OSBORNE in the Chair,

"Resolved—That we conceive the first step now necessary for this great purpose, to be a solemn and recorded declaration in parliament, of the legislative rights of this free nation, and that no body of men have any power or authority to make laws to bind this ancient and independent kingdom, save only the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland.

"Resolved—That it is the mutual interest of Great Britain and Ireland, always to possess the closest degree of liberal connexion. We are persuaded, from this motive, as well as from partiality, affinities, and affections, it is the universal and sincere desire of our countrymen, that the whole kingdoms, by having the same king, equal liberty, and similar constitutions, should remain inseparably connected for ever.

should remain inseparably connected for ever.
"Signed by order,

"PETER WALSH, Secretary."

"MOUNTMELLICK VOLUNTEERS.

"At a meeting of said Volunteers, at Mountmellick, April 1st, 1782,

LORD VISCOUNT CARLOW, in the Chair.

"Resolved unanimously—That the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, are the only power who have, or ought to have, any right to make laws to bind this kingdom, and that we will not obey or give operation to any laws, except those enacted by them.

"Resolved unanimously—That Great Britain and Ireland are inseparably connected by every tie that can cement a union between two nations, and should enjoy equal liberty and similar constitutions.

"Signed by order,
"John Shaw, Secretary."

"COUNTY KILKENNY.—CASTLEDURROW VOLUNTEERS.

"At a full meeting of the Castledurrow Volunteers, held at the Market-house, April 1st, 1782,

"Resolved—That no power on earth has a right to make laws to bind this kingdom, save only the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, and that we will, in every instance, uniformly and strenuously oppose the execution of any statute or laws, except such as are formed by the authority aforesaid.

"Signed by order,
"JOHN B. RIDGE, Secretary."

"COUNTY SLIGO.—TYRERIL TRUE BLUES.

" At a meeting of the Tyreril True Blues, held at Colloney, April 1st, 1782, pursuant to notice,

" The Rev. John Little in the Chair,

"Resolved — That considering ourselves as free citizens, armed in defence of ourselves, the laws and constitution of our country, and disclaiming any jurisdiction whatsoever, but of the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, we are firmly determined, with our lives and fortunes, to support every measure which may tend towards a preservation of that independence; and we also declare, that we will in every capacity oppose the execution of all such statutes, as the (at present to us seemingly) usurped authority of a British parliament has hitherto enacted, or may hereafter attempt to impose on a country, whose great wishes are to be free; at the same time, that we declare in almost the words of our worthy brethren, the delegates of the Connaught corps, that the chief wish of our hearts is to clasp our sister nation to our bosom, and

cement an indissoluble union between us; attached to her by every tie of affection and interest that can unite nations, surrounded as she is by a host of enemies, we are resolved to share her liberty, and share her fate.

"JOHN LITTLE, Chairman."

"PORTARLINGTON INFANTRY.

"At a meeting of the Portarlington Infantry, assembled by notice, on Tuesday, April 2nd, 1782,

Major Legrand in the Chair,

"Resolved unanimously—That mutual and inseparable interests should unite Great Britain and Ircland. As Citizens and Volunteers, we will never lose sight of that grand object. We took up arms to support his Majesty against the enemies of Great Britain and Ircland; to protect ourselves, and to maintain, by every constitutional mode, the freedom and independence of this kingdom, bound only by laws enacted by the King, Lords, and Commons of Ircland, whose rights and liberties we jointly and severally are determined to support with our lives and properties.

" WM. HENRY LEGRAND, Chairman."

"QUEEN'S COUNTY.

" Lent Assizes, 1782.

" At a meeting of the Grand Jury of said county, at Maryborough, Tuesday, 2nd April, 1782,

GEORGE BURDETT, Esq. Foreman, in the Chair,

The following Resolutions were agreed to:

"Resolved—That the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, being fully and alone competent to enact laws to bind the same, the interference of any other legislature is inconsistent, injurious, and oppressive, and that we will ever resist the execution of any such pretended laws, at the hazard of our lives and fortunes.

"Resolved—That any idea of separation from the imperial crown of Great Britain, is absurd, extravagant, and ruinous; that attached by loyalty and duty to his Majesty's person and

government, and by affection and interest united to Great Britain, we will stand and fall by her; but that being bound to share her distresses, we are entitled to a full participation of her liberty, and we hope the candour of her legislature will remove every ideal ground of future jealousy and cavil.

"GEORGE BURDETT, Foreman."

"STRABANE MEETING.

"At a meeting of the Inhabitants of the town of Strabane, on the 3rd of April, 1782, in order to take into consideration the present state of public affairs,

JOHN SPROULE, Esq. Provost, in the Chair,

"Resolved—That we will, in every situation of life, and with all the means in our power, assert and maintain the constitutional right of this kingdom, to be governed by such laws only, as are enacted by the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland; and that we will, in every instance, uniformly and strenuously oppose the execution of any statute, except such as derive authority from said parliament.

"JOHN SPROULE, Provost."

It appears that a Volunteer Convention was held at Carlow, at which the following resolutions were passed:—

"At a general meeting of the Delegates from the several Volunteer Corps of the Queen's County, viz.—5 of Cavalry, and 15 of Infantry, held at Maryborough, April 3, 1782,

The VISCOUNT CARLOW in the Chair,

The following Resolutions were unanimously agreed to-

"Resolved—That the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, are fully and alone competent to enact laws to bind the same, and that we will resist the execution of any other pretended laws, at the hazard of our lives and fortunes.

"Resolved—That any idea of separation from the imperial crown of Great Britain, is absurd, extravagant, and ruinous; that enjoying similar constitutions, we are entitled to equal liberty; and we hope the prudence of the British Legislature

will remove every ideal ground of future jealousy and discontent, and that no mere cavil in words, may prevent that affectionate and perfect amity and union we ever wish to preserve.

" CARLOW, Chairman."

"UNIVERSITY MEETING.

"At a meeting of the Electors of the University, convened on Wednesday, the 3rd April, 1782, by public notice,

Mr. WILLIAM BAKER, in the Chair,

- "The following Address was unanimously agreed to, and ordered to be presented to their Representatives.
- "To the Right Hon. Walter Burgh, and John Fitzgibbon, Esq., Representatives in part for the University of Dublin.
- "Gentlemen—The power of binding Ireland by acts of a foreign legislature, is what nothing but a spirit of arrogance or oppression would insist upon—nothing but the most abject servility submit to; for we cannot suppose, that the appearance of a claim which irritates the whole body of the people, would be retained, unless there was an intention of enforcing this claim hereafter. We are therefore convinced, that an express declaration of rights is the only measure upon which this country can build its legislative independence; and that a reluctance to assert the constitution of the land, may furnish Great Britain with a pretence for denying the justice of our requisition.

"It is our wish to render the connexion between this country and Great Britain as close and permanent as possible, and we are persuaded that this is only to be accomplished by abolishing all usurped authority of the one over the other, and removing every invidious distinction between the constitutions of the two

countries, equally entitled to be free.

" WM. BAKER, Chairman."

"TO THE ELECTORS OF TRINITY COLLEGE.

"Gentlemen—I have always been of an opinion that the claim of the British parliament to make laws for this country, is a daring usurpation on the rights of a free people, and have uniformly asserted this opinion both in public and in private. When a declaration of the legislative right was moved in the

House of Commons, I did oppose it, upon a decided conviction, that it was a measure of a dangerous tendency, and withal inadequate to the purpose for which it was intended. However, I do, without hesitation, yield my own opinion upon this subject to yours, and will, whenever such a declaration shall be moved, give it my support.

"I have the honour to be, Gentlemen,
"With great respect,
"Your most obedient and very humble Servant,
"JOHN FITZGIBBON.

" Mount Shannon, April 11th, 1782."

The following resolution is significant, and we have therefore selected it from amongst many.

"At a meeting of the Cumber Battalion, April 4th, 1782.

" Colonel DAVID Ross in the Chair,

"Resolved unanimously-That an equal distribution of jus-

tice is both the glory and strength of every empire.

"Resolved unanimously—That to assert or maintain that this kingdom is to be governed by any other power except the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, is an unequal distribution of justice, a subversion of the rights of this kingdom, and detrimental to the real happiness of the whole empire.

"DAVID Ross, Chairman."

"CLARE MEETING.

"At a meeting of the Gentlemen, Clergy, and Freeholders of the County of Clare, convened by the High Sheriff, at Ennis, April 6th, 1782, pursuant to public notice,

"Poole Hickman, Esq., High Sheriff, in the Chair,

" The following Resolutions were agreed to:

"Resolved—That it appears to us to be absolutely necessary to declare, that no power on earth has any right to make laws to bind this kingdom, save the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland.

"Resolved—That a claim of any body of men, other than the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, to make laws to bind this kingdom, is unconstitutional, illegal, and a grievance.

" POOLE HICKMAN, Sheriff."

The Grand Jury of the city of Cork signalized their patriotism in the following manner:—

"GRAND JURY OF THE CITY OF CORK.

" Council Chamber, April 6th, 1782,

"Resolved—That the exercise of the power of legislation, by any foreign legislature, is degrading to the country over which such power is exerted, subversive of its liberties, calculated to break down the spirit of its people, and sufficient to reduce a great kingdom to the contemptible situation of a tributary province.

tributary province.

"That the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland are the legislature thereof, competent solely, and in exclusion of every other power on earth, to make laws to bind this kingdom; and that every attempt by any other body of men to exercise this

right, is unconstitutional, and ought to be resisted.

"That the claim of the British parliament to bind this kingdom by laws, is a claim disgraceful and unproductive; disgraceful to us, because it is an infringement of our constitution; unproductive to Great Britain, because the exercise of it will not be submitted to by the people of Ireland.

"R. H. HUTCHINSON, Foreman."

"UNION REGIMENT.

"At a meeting of the Representatives of the several Corps of this Regiment, held at the Market-house in Moira, on Monday, the 8th of April, 1782, in order to take into consideration the Dungannon Resolutions,

"LIEUTENANT-COL. SHARMAN in the Chair,

"Resolved—That in the present general appeal to the people, we think ourselves called on, as part of the civil body, to make a public declaration of our principles.

"Resolved—That his Majesty's loyal subjects of this regiment entertain a sincere and unfeigned attachment to his

Majesty's person and government.

"Resolved—That his Majesty's people of Ireland are a free people, inheritors of a free constitution, descended to them from their ancestors.

"Resolved —That his Majesty's kingdom of Ireland is a distinct kingdom, giving a distinct title to the Imperial Crown, with a parliament of its own, the sole legislature of the state.

"Resolved—That it is the undoubted right of this free people, (a right which they value as their lives,) to be governed solely by their own laws. That the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, are the only representatives of this crown and people; and the interposition of any other body of men with the legislature of this country, is incompatible with our fundamental laws and franchises.

"Resolved—That next to our liberties, we value our connexion with Great Britain, as a blessing on which the happiness of both kingdoms depends; we shall look forward therefore with a pleasing conviction, that the justice of Great Britain will shake hands with the liberties of Ireland; and that the liberal renunciation of claims so useless to the claimants—to us the cause of discontent, and to others of fatal calamities—will secure the peace of the present, and the attachment of the succeeding generations.

" Signed by order,
" Wm. Bateman, Secretary."

The following short but distinct Resolution was passed by the Sessions Grand Jury of the City of Dublin:

"CITY OF DUBLIN MEETING.

"At a meeting of the Sessions Grand Jury for the County of the City of Dublin, held at the Tholsel, on Monday, April 8th, 1782, the following Resolution was unanimously agreed to:

"Resolved—That every attempt of the British Parliament to restrain or limit the trade, or to frame laws for the government of this kingdom, is illegal and unconstitutional.

" PATRICK BRIDE, Foreman."

The following Resolutions show how ardent and continued was the patriotism of the County of Wexford, at the period to which we refer.

"COUNTY WEXFORD.

"At a meeting of the Gentlemen, Clergy, and Freeholders of the County of Wexford, convened by the High Sheriff at the County Court House, on Tuesday the 9th day of April, 1782, pursuant to public notice,

"Resolved—That the late spirited and successful efforts of the parliament of Great Britain, to assert her own rights, and support their own constitution, against the undue influence of the Crown, is an example well worthy the imitation of the parliament of Ireland.

"Resolved—That Great Britain and Ireland ought to enjoy equal liberty and the same constitution, and that we will, in every situation of life, and with all the means in our power,

support this position.

"That we deny the authority of the British Parliament to make laws to bind this kingdom, and that we will not obey any laws that shall be so made.

"HENRY BROWNRIGG, Sheriff."

We could not possibly refuse to insert the following declaration of the inhabitants of the County of Kerry, in County Meeting assembled.

"COUNTY KERRY MEETING.

- "We, the Gentlemen, Clergy, and Freeholders of the County of Kerry, convened at Tralee, on Tuesday, the 9th day of April, 1782, pursuant to notice given by the High Sheriff,
- "Do unanimously declare—That we acknowledge no other power save the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, as competent to make laws to bind this kingdom; that we conceive the interference of any other body, for that purpose, to be a wanton and unwarrantable encroachment, and an infringement of our rights; and that we do expect such declaration from our representatives in parliament.

"Denis Mahony, Sheriff."

Thus spoke the friends of freedom in Dungarvan-

"DUNGARVAN VOLUNTEERS.

"At a meeting of the Dungarvan Volunteers, Nos. 1 and 2, at the Town House in Dungarvan, the 10th of April, 1782,

CAPTAIN BOAT in the Chair,

"Resolved unanimously—That the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, are the only power competent to make laws to bind this kingdom.

"John Wilkinson, Secretary."

In similar terms the Farbill Light Dragoons expressed themselves:

"COUNTY WESTMEATH.

"At a full meeting of the Farbill Light Dragoons, held at Killucan the 10th day of April, 1782,

CAPTAIN ROBERT COOKE in the Chair,

The following Resolution was agreed to:

"Resolved—That no power on earth is competent to make laws to bind Ireland, except the King, Lords, and Commons thereof."

"Robert Cook, Chairman."

The same resolution was adopted by the

RATHDOWN LIGHT DRAGOONS, County of Dublin.

"At a meeting of this Corps, on Wednesday, the 10th of April, 1782,

Col. Sir John Allen Johnson, Bart., in the Chair,

The following Resolution was unanimously agreed to:

"Resolved—That the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, are alone competent to make laws to bind this kingdom.

J. A. Johnson, Chairman."

It appears that all classes in the County of Dublin were animated with a desire to pledge themselves in the strongest way to the doctrine of Irish Independence.

"COUNTY OF DUBLIN.

"At a meeting of the High Sheriff and Grand Jury of the County of Dublin, assembled in the Court House at Kilmainham, on Thursday, 11th April, 1782,

THOMAS BAKER, Esq. Foreman, in the Chair,

The following Resolutions were agreed to:

"Resolved—That no power on earth, but the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, can in right make laws to bind the

people of this land.

"Resolved—That the members of the House of Commons are the representatives of, and derive their power solely from the people; and that a denial of this proposition by them, would be to abdicate the representation.

"THOMAS BAKER, Foreman."

We cannot exclude the following Resolution—

"MULLINGAR VOLUNTEERS.

At a meeting of the Mullingar Corps, on Friday, April 12th, 1782,

WM. JUDGE, Esq. Colonel, in the Chair,

"Resolved—That the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, are the only power competent to make laws to bind this kingdom, and that we will not assist in the execution of any but those enacted by the legislature aforesaid.

" WM. JUDGE, Chairman."

How strange it will appear to those who know the Corporation of Dublin, to find that they could have passed such a Resolution as the following: At an Assembly held at the Tholsel of the City of Dublin, on Friday, the 12th day of April, 1782,

"Resolved unanimously—That we conceive that the people of this country are now called upon to declare, that the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, are the only power competent to make laws to bind this kingdom.

"TAYLOR and LAMBERT, Town Clerks."

There is material of the highest temper in the following Resolutions.

"COUNTY OF DUBLIN LIGHT DRAGOONS.

"At a meeting of the County of Dublin Light Dragoons, on parade, April 14th, 1782,

The RIGHT HON. LUKE GARDINER in the Chair,

"Resolved unanimously—That the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, are the only power competent to make laws to bind this kingdom.

"Resolved unanimously—That until the indisputable rights of the different branches of the legislature of this kingdom shall be fully recognised, harmony between Great Britain and Ire-

land can never be completely established.

"Resolved unanimously—That any man, or body of men, in either kingdom, who at this crisis can hesitate at a recognition of our rights, must be considered as holding sentiments tending to separate Great Britain and Ireland, and inimical to the tranquillity of both kingdoms.

"LUKE GARDINER, Chairman."

Thus spoke the County of Cork, and may it soon so speak again.

"COUNTY OF CORK MEETING.

"At a meeting of the Gentlemen, Clergy, and Freeholders of the County of Cork, convened pursuant to advertisement, at the County Court House, on Monday, 15th day of April, 1782,

"ABRAHAM MORRIS, Esq., High Sheriff, in the Chair,

"Resolved unanimously—That national and independent legislation, being the fundamental right of the subject, without the establishment of which we can never hope for security to our person or our properties, is an object of great national importance; and that we will assert, promote, maintain, and defend, this and all our other natural and inherent rights, by every constitutional means; solemnly declaring, that no power or state whatsoever, hath any right to make laws to bind this kingdom, save only the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland.

"Resolved unanimously—That as we hold the interests and connexions of Great Britain and Ireland to be inseparable, so we also declare their legislature to be distinct and independent of each other, and that the security and firmness of the former, can only be maintained by the establishment of the latter.

"ABRAHAM MORRIS, Sheriff."

The following emphatic declarations emanated from the

"KING'S COUNTY.—BARONY OF KILCOURSY UNION.

"At a meeting of the Barony of Kilcoursy Union, held at Horseleap, on Tuesday the 16th April, 1782,

"MAJOR BAGOT in the Chair,

" The following Resolutions were unanimously agreed to:

"Resolved—That we highly approve of the virtuous and patriotic Resolutions of the Ulster Delegates, assembled at

Dungannon on the 15th of February last.

"Resolved—That the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, are the only power competent to make laws to bind this kingdom, and that we will resist, with our lives and fortunes, the execution of any other laws, save those only that are enacted by the authority aforesaid.

"Signed by order,

"Joseph Henderson, Sec."

We heartily concur in the sentiments expressed in the following resolutions:

"CLONLONAN VOLUNTEERS.

"At a meeting of the Clonlonan Light Infantry, at Moate, on Tuesday, the 16th April, 1782,

"COLONEL GEORGE CLIBBORN in the Chair,

" The following Resolutions were unanimously agreed to:

"Resolved—That we will steadily maintain, and strenuously support the principles of our original institution, the defence of our country against foreign enemies, the preservation of the public peace, and the protection of our constitutional freedom,

rights, and privileges.

"Resolved—That the sole power of enacting laws to bind this kingdom, is vested in the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland only; and that we will not, as Volunteers, or in any other capacity, enforce the execution of any laws, except such as have received that constitutional sanction.

"Signed by order,
"J. Adamson, Secretary."

The Wicklow Convention expressed itself thus:-

"WICKLOW VOLUNTEERS.

"At a meeting of the Representatives of the Independent Wicklow Foresters, Cavalry and Infantry, at Wicklow, the 20th of April, 1782,

" COLONEL HAYES in the Chair,

"Resolved unanimously—That though we had conceived the general voice of this county, in the unanimous resolutions passed at last Lent Assizes, had fully spoken our sentiments, yet perceiving that several respectable corps have thought it proper to remove every possible doubt of their principles, by speaking particularly for themselves; and being fully persuaded, that subjects, by acquiring a knowledge in the use of arms, do in no respects relinquish the rights to a free discussion of public measures, we do now declare, that no power on earth has a power to make laws to bind this kingdom, but the King, with the Lords and Commons of Ireland.

We close our extracts with the following:

"LISMORE VOLUNTEERS.

"At a full meeting of the Independent Blues of Lismore, in the County of Waterford, on the 1st of April, 1782,

"ROBERT COOKE, Esq. in the Chair,

"Resolved—That the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland only, are competent to make laws to bind this kingdom; and that an usurpation of this power by any other body of men, is unconstitutional, illegal, and a grievance.

"ROBERT COOKE."

"1782.—April 6.—Address of the Committee of the Dungannon Delegates to the Electors and Members of Parliament in Ulster, on their duties, and the conduct to be pursued by them at the approaching General Election.

"ULSTER VOLUNTEERS.

"By the subscribing Members of the Committee.

" To the Electors and Members of Parliament in the Province of Ulster.

"Gentlemen,—Delegated by the Volunteers assembled at Dungannon, we call on you to support the constitutional and commercial rights of Ireland—to exert the important privileges of Freemen at the ensuing Election, and to proclaim to the world that you at least deserve to be free.

"Regard not the threats of landlords or their agents.

"We entreat you in the name of the great and respectable body we represent—we implore you by every social and honourable tie—we conjure you as Citizens, as Freemen, as IRISHMEN, to raise this long insulted kingdom, and restore to her her lost rights. One great and united effort will place us among the first nations of the earth; and those who shall have the glory of contributing to that event will be for ever recorded as the Saviours of their country.

"William Irvine,
Francis Lucas,
Alexander Stewart,
Robert Campbell,
James Dawson,
John Coulson,
Robert M'Clintock,
Thomas Morris Jones,
Francis Dobbs,
Joseph Pollock,
James Acheson,
Robert Black,

John Ferguson,
Andrew Thompson,
James M'Clintock,
Waddell Cunningham,
Thomas Dickson,
William Crawford,
Charles Powell Leslie,
Charles Nisbitt,
John Harvey,
Francis Evans,
David Bell,
Robert Thompson."

"COUNTY OF DOWN.

"We, the High Sheriff, Grand Jury, Freeholders, and inhabitants of the county of Down, assembled in Downpatrick, at an Assizes held for said county, the 15th day of March, 1782, thinking it now peculiarly necessary to declare our sentiments respecting the fundamental and undoubted rights of this nation, and desirous, by a seasonable explanation, to terminate an anxious jealousy, and to prevent the possibility of any future contest, do declare, that we will, in every situation of life, and with all the means in our power, assert and maintain the constitutional right of this kingdom, to be governed by such laws only, as are enacted by the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland; and that we will, in every instance, uniformly and strenuously oppose the execution of any statutes, except such as derive authority from said parliament, pledging ourselves to our country, and to each other, to support, with our lives and fortunes, this our solemn declaration; and farther, we bind ourselves, that we will yearly renew this necessary vindication of our rights, till such time as they shall be explicitly acknowledged, and firmly established by the authority of parliament.

"Thomas Douglas, Sheriff. Grand Jurors:

- 1 Richard Annesly, Foreman, by order of the majority of the Grand Jury.
- 2 Robert Ward,
- 6 Matthew Ford.

- 7 Nicholas Price,
- 8 Gawin Hamilton,
- 9 Simon Isaac,
- 11 Richard Magennis,
- 12 Arthur Johnston,
- 13 Alexander Stuart,
- 14 James Waddell,

15 Nicholas Harrison,

16 Matthew Forde, jun.

17 Francis Savage,

18 John Kennedy,

20 Samuel Gibbons,

21 Charles Innes,

22 Robert Montgomery,

23 James Crawford, John Blackwood,

Roger Hall, Pat. Savage,

Edward Ward, Francis Price,

John Echlin,

Robert Lambert,

James Ham. Clewlow,

John Crawford, James Clewlow,

Eldred Pottinger,

Henry West,

William Waring, Steele Hawthorn,

John Aughinleck,

William Hamilton,

James Hamilton, Francis Turnley,

And five thousand eight hundred and fifty-two

others."

DOWN VOLUNTEERS.

"At a full meeting of the Down Volunteers, assembled by public notice at the Court-house in Downpatrick, on Sunday, the 3rd of March, 1782, to take into consideration the Resolutions and Address entered into and published by the Meeting of Delegates from the Volunteers of Ulster, assembled at Dungannon, on the 15th day of February last,

Captain HENRY WEST in the Chair:

"Resolved—That we highly approve of the Resolutions and Address entered into by those gentlemen; and as we think them dictated by the spirit of moderation, liberality of sentiment, and patriotism, we are determined to support and accede to them, both in our private and public capacities, as citizens and Volunteers.

"Resolved—That our Chairman do communicate our approbation of, and accession to said Resolutions, to the Secretary of the Dungannon Meeting, and inform him that we most willingly embrace the invitation to become Members of that Association.

"Signed by order,

"HENRY WEST."

Bangor, March 23, 1782.

" At a numerous meeting of the Inhabitants of the Town and Parish of Bangor, convened by a public advertisement signed by several of the principal Freeholders,

"Rev. James Ham. CLEWLOW in the Chair,

The Resolutions and Address of the Ulster Volunteers, represented at Dungannon, being read paragraph by paragraph—

"Resolved—That the said resolutions and address fully and perfectly express our sentiments, and that we will co-operate with all the friends of Ireland, with our lives and fortunes, in

obtaining our national rights.

"Resolved—That we will vote for no candidate at any future election, who shall not enter into the most solemn engagement, that he will endeavour to procure redress of all the grievances mentioned in the Dungannon Resolutions; that he will regularly attend his duty in parliament, and obey the instructions of his constituents.

"Resolved—That the persons who shall be thought worthy of our support, shall not be subjected to any expense on our

account.

"Resolved—That a freeholder is answerable only to God for his vote, and that whosoever shall attempt to influence him by any other means than that of argument, is an enemy to the freedom of election, and consequently to the real interest of

his country.

"Resolved—That James Hamilton Clewlow, John Crawford, Patrick Clevland, William Nicholson, Don. Nicholson, James Hull, John Blackwood, William Blackwood, James Gray, James Johnstone, Hugh Jackson, Robert Dunn, and Alexander Reid, be appointed a Committee to call the next Meeting of the Parish, and till then to communicate with similar Committees, which may be appointed in other parishes of this county, five to be a quorum.

"Signed by order,

"JAMES HAM. CLEWLOW."

"At a meeting of the united Parishes of Killinchy, Kilmud, and Tollynakill, at the Dissenting Meeting-house of Killinchy, in the Barony of Dufferin, convened by public notice, the 13th April, 1782,

"HAMILTON MOORE, Esq., in the Chair,

"The following Resolutions were unanimously agreed to:

"That the Dungannon Resolutions are founded in wisdom and justice, and breathe the true spirit of toleration and independence; we, therefore, pledge ourselves to join with them, in every measure that may tend to establish our rights, and promote the happiness of the people.

"That we will not support any man, on the ensuing election, but such as are of approved integrity, and friends to the

constitution of Ireland.

"SAINTFIELD LIGHT INFANTRY.

"At a meeting of the Saintfield Light Infantry, April 24th, 1782, the following Resolutions were unanimously agreed to:

"Resolved—That we highly approve of, and heartily accede to the spirited Resolutions entered into by the Delegates assembled at Dungannon on the 15th of February last.

"Resolved—That our thanks are due to those men who have so strenuously supported and maintained our rights in parliament.

" NICHOLAS PRICE, Captain."

"At a meeting of the Ards Battalion, in the County of Down, on the 22d April, 1782,

"COLONEL SAVAGE in the Chair,

"Resolved unanimously—That the manly, laudable, and moderate Resolutions of the Ulster Volunteers, met at Dungannon, have our warmest approbation, and that we most heartily accede to them: with pleasure we accept of their invitation, and think ourselves honoured by being admitted members of so truly respectable a body.

"PAT. SAVAGE."

A Petition to the Irish Parliament from the County of Down, against the Union, was adopted at a meeting convened by the Sheriff, at the County Court-house, on the 27th of January, 1800.

This Petition is too long for insertion, we therefore limit

ourselves to the following extract from it:

"We therefore beg leave to express our firm and confident hope, that you will maintain that happy constitution and connexion, which has heretofore given us the blessings of protection and prosperity, by a speedy access to our resident Parliament, which can only preserve our happy and constitutional connexion with Great Britain, our Rights, our Liberties, and the true interests of Ireland."

This petition was signed by 17,500 Freeholders of the

County of Down.

_____]

Extract from Lord Grey's Speech in the British Parliament, in the year 1800.

* "Twenty-seven counties have petitioned against the measure (the Union); the petition from the county of Down is signed by upwards of 17,000 respectable independent men, and all the others are in a similar proportion. Dublin petitioned under the great seal of the city, and each of the corporations in it followed the example. Drogheda petitioned against the Union, and almost every other town in the kingdom in like manner testified its disapprobation. Those in favour of the measure, possessing great influence in the country, obtained a few counter-petitions; yet, though the petition from the county Down was signed by 17,000, the counter-petition was signed only by 415; though there were 707,000 who had signed petitions against the measure, the total number of those who declared themselves in favour of it, did not exceed 3,000, and many even of those only prayed that the measure might be discussed. If the facts I state are true-and I challenge any man to falsify them-could a nation in more direct terms express its disapprobation of a political measure than Ireland has of a Legislative Union with Great Britain? In fact, the nation is nearly unanimous, and this great majority is composed not of fanatics, bigots, or Jacobins, but of the most respectable of every class in the community."

COUNTIES OF DOWN AND ANTRIM.

At a meeting of the following Orange Lodges, viz.:

N	o. 39, Ralph Bullock, M.	aster.	No.258, James Peyton, M	aster.
	67, George Watson,		287, John Irwin,	
	70, James Woods,		288, John Johnston,	do.
	75, Samuel Craige,	do.	319, James Gorman,	do.
	87, Robert Patterson,	do.	328, Richd. Parkinson,	do.
	100, James Hill,	do.	345, Thomas Craige,	do.
	111, Joseph Cherry,	do.	403, Jonathan Gilbert,	do.
	113, William M'Dead,	do.	442, William Ewart,	do.
	121, Thomas Briggs,	do.	466, Thomas Martin,	do.
	128, Robert M'Com,	do.	547, Wills Phœnix,	do.
	130, Robert Kyle,	do.	528, Robert M'Knight,	do.
	144, Isaac Rennyson,	do.	602, George Scott,	do.
	164, Joseph Collins,	do.	616, Andw. Standfield,	do.
	206, William Moore,	do.	752, Samuel Silbarn,	do.
	237, William M'Com,	do.	771, Thos. Chambers,	do.
	257, John Elliot,	do.	792, Adam Magee,	do.

held at the Maze, on Saturday, 1st March, 1800:-

"Resolved—That as Orangemen we have associated for the preservation of the Laws and Constitution of this Kingdom, and that as such, we are determined strenuously to persevere in declaring, that we consider a Legislative Union with Great Britain as INEVITABLE RUIN TO THE PEACE, PROSPERITY, AND HAPPINESS OF THIS KINGDOM."



APPENDIX, No. IV.

THE

"COMMERCIAL INJUSTICES."

THE following recorded evidences of the ungenerous spirit English in which England has acted towards Ireland in points to English affecting her commercial and manufacturing prosperity, jealousy of Ireland. are taken from English sources.

The first is from Anderson's "History of Commerce." It shows that the more favourable conduct of England in the points alluded to, previous to the 17th century, was subsequently a subject of regret. Anderson has not noted the reason of that early favour. It was simply because the commerce and trifling manufactures of Ireland were in towns that were mere English fortresses along the Irish coast. But when the Irish began to have a share, she commenced her oppressions, and gave free vent to her ungenerous and cruel jealousy of Irish prosperity.

"In those early days commerce was not so perfectly understood as to be made subservient to the political interests of princes and states. Of this we have an instance under the year 1289, being the 17th of King Edward I., when an act passed relating to Ireland, the 4th section whereof gives 'leave for

all kinds of merchandize to be exported from Ireland, except to the King's enemies.' Certainly, then as well as now, there were some Irish commodities that interfered with those of the same kind in England, and particularly wool and leather. Even much later than this time, we find another law to the like effect in the 34th year of King Edward III., being the year of our Lord 1360, c. 17, 'giving leave for all kinds of merchandize to be exported from and into Ireland, as well by aliens as denizens;' and also c. 18 of the same year enacts, 'that all persons who have lands and possessions in Ireland might freely import thither, and also export from that kingdom their own commodities,' which liberty, in our days, would be deemed unsafe and dangerous."—1763, p. 321, vol. 1, Anderson's Commerce.

This was written in 1763, but there are earlier proofs of the evil disposition of England. Sir William Temple, writing in 1673, thus advised the then Lord Lieutenant of Ireland:—

"Regard must be had to those points wherein the trade of Ireland comes to interfere with that of England, in which case the Irish trade ought to be declined, so as to give way to the trade of England."

This policy was very effectively followed up. Indeed ten years before Sir William Temple wrote, Irish commerce got a cruel blow from the Navigation Acts of Charles II. She was cut off from all direct trade with the colonies, just as she was beginning to find it most profitable.

For details we refer the reader to a subsequent part of this article, as well as for the details of the ruin of our woollen manufactures, by the compliance of William III. with the grossly and tyrannously unjust demand to that effect, made upon him by the British parliament. We proceed with our authorities. The cruel effect of the act of William III. was well described by the historian, Barlow:—

"From the establishment of the act of settlement and explanation, Ireland had rapidly increased in wealth and improvement, to the admiration and envy of her neighbours, till it was again laid waste by the revolutionary wars under William III., and even from this calamity it was recovering with such quickness, that in 1698 the balance of trade in its favour amounted to between four and five hundred thousand pounds.

"But the effects were permanent of restricting laws, insurmountable by the fertility of the soil, the ingenuity of the inhabitants, navigable rivers, and a multitude of harbours."—

(Vol. 1, p. 290.)

The 17th century having thus closed, we give, from a pamphlet published in London, in 1727, an evidence of the continuance, in the 18th century, of the same arrogant and insolently selfish spirit, with which our interests were treated.

"Seasonable Remarks on Trade, with some Reflections on the Advantages that might accrue to Great Britain by a proper Regulation of the Trade of Ireland, wrote in London, 1727.

P. 36.—" The situation of Ireland for an extended trade is more advantageous than that of any other nation in Europe. Its harbours are many and commodious, its inhabitants numerous and hardy, inured to want and labour, and able upon poor fare

to run through a great deal of work.

"Their near situation renders intercourse between us very easy, and enables us to protect their trade, and to take such care of our interest there as would be almost impossible, had they been more remote. The politeness, the gaiety, the power of our court, allure all those who are studious either of improvement, of pleasure, or of preferment. This drains from them the penny-rents of most of the great estates of that kingdom, and every increase of their wealth will (by enlarging the rentrolls of those already settled here, and by enabling others to taste the delights of a court, who by the narrowness of their present fortunes are confined at home) greatly enlarge this inlet of their money, and increase our drafts upon them, which, together with the restrictions on the exportation of their wool, and the other advantages which we already have of them in

trade, will cause to centre in England all, or the most part of,

their acquisitions on the general balance.

"I am sensible that the proposition which I here advance is a very bold one; as it is so opposite to the universally received opinion, that it were better for England if Ireland were no more. But, if we consider (apart from prejudice and particular interests) how greatly we are already gainers by the trade and industry of that country, poor as it is, we shall, perhaps, give into a notion so greatly exploded, and begin to think that the wealth and prosperity of Ireland is not only compatible with that of England, but highly conducing also to its riches, grandeur, and power."

The writer of the pamphlet had actually to apologise for thinking that Ireland ought to exist at all, and this although he only contemplated her existence as a means of giving England more plunder!

Referring for all details to the citation that follows, of acts of the English parliament, marking the subsistence of their spirit of injustice, we crowd together our remaining English authorities.

"British legislation, on all occasions, controlled Irish commerce with a very high hand—universally on the principle of monopoly; as if the poverty of Ireland were her wealth."—

Tour of Arthur Young, 1776-7.

"From the Revolution till within these few years, the system had been that of debarring Ireland from the use of her own resources, and making her subservient to the interests and

opulence of the English people."—Pitt, 1785.

Mr. Dempster (on the same occasion) in the English parliament, said, that "England had always been miserably jealous of Ireland."

On another occasion, Mr. Grenville (afterwards Lord Grenville) said, "If England were heavily taxed, she had now, and had had for a whole century past, the benefits of a widely-extended trade, from which she had excluded Ireland—and the latter had already given to England all that she could have made, if by a barbarous and equally absurd policy she had not been debarred from those advantages that God and nature had given her."

"Ireland had long felt the narrow policy of Great Britain, who, influenced by views of trade and commercial advantage, and stained and perverted with selfish motives, had treated her with partiality and neglect, and never looked on her prosperity as that of the empire at large."—Pitt, 1799.

Such being some of the principal testimony, up to the similar testimon, as to English jealously of Ireland's prosperity, the Union. there need but two extracts more to show that it has not been denied since.

"Is it not well known that, till 1780, the agriculture, internal industry, manufactures, commerce, and navigation of Ireland, were all held in the most rigid subserviency to the supposed interests of Great Britain? In 1778 there was a proposal to allow her to import sugar direct, and to export every thing but woollens to pay for it; and this proposal was almost made a question of allegiance by the great towns of Great Britain, and so it was lost! In 1779 a more limited concession to her was also lost! But towards the close of that year the disasters in North America, and the state of things in Ireland, produced a different feeling in the British parliament-state necessities, acting under a sense of political danger, yielded without grace, that which good sense and good feeling had before recommended in vain; and in 1782, under the like pressure, those concessions were rendered irrevocable."—Mr. Huskisson, March 21, 1825.

"Ireland was, under our old colonial system, prohibited from any direct trade with British colonies. This system was maintained with all its vigour till 1780, when, after the close of the American war, it became imperatively necessary to look to the rising spirit of discontent in Ireland, much fomented by the illiberal and unjust policy of this country (England) in respect to commerce. Every liberal relaxation encountered violent opposition, by strong petitions from Manchester, Glasgow, and Liverpool; the merchants of the latter place said that if Ireland were placed on the same footing with England, the port and town of Liverpool would fall back to its former state."—March 12, 1841.—Labouchere, President of the Board of Trade.

Leaving these general testimonies as to England's jea- First conlousy of our commercial progress, we come to details. By the project

of crushing Irish manufactures.

the infamous Lord Strafford, her active hostility in this respect seems to have been evoked. In Wallace's Essay on the Trade and Manufactures of Ireland (Dublin, 1798), an extract is given from a letter of his, dated July 25, 1636, on the subject of the report he had made to the King and Council, respecting the manufacturing prospects of Ireland. The extract is as follows:—

"That there was little or no manufactures among them (scil. the Irish), but some beginnings towards a clothing trade which I had, and so should still discourage all I could, unless otherwise directed by his Majesty and their Lordships, in regard it would trench not only on the clothings of England, being our staple commodity, so as if they should manufacture their own wool, which grew to very great quantities, we (scil. the English) should not only lose the profit we make now by in-draping their wools, but his Majesty lose extremely by his customs. And in conclusion, it might be feared they might beat us out of the trade itself, by underselling us, which they were able to do."

He added, that he had endeavoured to turn the attention of the Irish to the manufacture of linen. His interference was utterly unjustifiable. Ireland, like every other nation, had a right to follow whatever manufactures she best liked, or found most convenient. Wool was her natural staple, the material being in excellence and abundance at home. If she afterwards took of her own accord to the more exotic article of linen, there was no reason why she should be confined to that alone. But such was the design, and although Strafford failed, and that the internal dissensions and disorders which pervaded in England for nearly a quarter of a century after, prevented his suggestions being immediately acted upon by England, they were carefully kept in mind, till a favourable concurrence of circumstances in the very last years of the century, gave her the long-desired opportunity of carrying them into effect.

In the reign of Charles II. began the direct legislative 1660. First legislative riterference with the commercial prospects of Ireland, lative attack on our mawhich is alluded to in the quotations we have given from nufactures. English writers and speakers. By the 12 Chas. II. chap. 4, woollen duties equal to a prohibition were laid in England on the bidden to be import of Irish woollen goods. This was little noticed at England. the time, our manufacture, in that respect, not being just then very extensive. But it was the beginning of a cruel system rigorously carried out and persevered in for nearly 120 years, and which speedily and severely forced itself on the notice of the Irish. The act we have mentioned was Attack followed up; speedily followed up by the 15 Chas. II. chap. 7, (1663,) colonial market prohibiting the import of Irish cattle into England, and shut. all export of value from Ireland to the colonies. came the 22 and 23 Chas. II. chap. 26, (1770,) forbidding import into Ireland of sugar, tobacco, cotton, indigo, steel, Jamaica wood, or fustic, and some other articles from the colonies, unless first unloaded in an English port. act contains an intimation that its prohibitions had been intended in the act of 1663, but not sufficiently expressed in the clause of the latter act, which forbade import of colonial articles from an English port into Ireland, unless the ship had first unloaded in that port.

So active was the miserable jealousy that dictated these Aggresand other aggressions upon our commercial liberty, that way of prevention of they were, for the greater part, made more to guard against our prosperity. an anticipated, rather than against any immediately existing success of Irish enterprize. This was particularly the case with the two first of the acts we have mentioned. Our wool manufacture, although certainly making advances, was very far from being in such a flourishing condition in 1660, as to justify the jealous fears of competition with England, that prompted the 12 Chas. II. chap. 4. Nor was the English dread of decrease in the value of land,

from extensive import of Irish cattle better founded, when in 1663 that article of Import was forbidden upon such a pretence.

Improvement of Ireland up to 1688.

At the same time there is no doubt that Ireland was progressing. We have already quoted the testimony of the historian Barlow, to that effect. In 1692, Lord Deputy Sydney, in his speech from the throne to the Irish parliament, bore similar testimony, from his own knowledge.* Much of this increased prosperity has been attributed, and with justice, to James, first Duke of Ormonde. In an excellent publication (the authorship of which is in some doubt), entitled "The Commercial Restraints of Ireland considered," printed in Dublin, in 1779, this nobleman and his efforts are thus spoken of:-

Efforts of the Duke of Ormonde to promote this improvement.

"To heal the wound that this country (Ireland) had received by the prohibition of the export of her cattle to England, Lord Ormonde obtained from Charles II. a letter dated 23rd March, 1667, by which he directed all restraints on export of Irish goods to foreign † parts, to be taken off......and the import from Scotland of linen, woollen, and other commodities, to be stopped, as drawing large sums out of Ireland. His Grace successfully executed his schemes of national improvement, having by his own constant attention, the exertion of his extensive influence, and the most princely munificence, greatly advanced the woollen, and revived the linen manufactures."

Accidental

This result was also in some degree accelerated by one it from Eng- of those very instances of anticipatory obstruction, on the part of Great Britain, which we have noticed a couple of The particular instance in question was paragraphs ago. that in which by one part of the act of 1663, Irish cattle were prohibited from being sent into England. The Irish,

^{*}Other evidence can be abundantly had—as that of Archbishop King in his State of the Protestants of Ireland; Lord Chief Justice Keating's Address to James II., and his Letters to Sir John Temple, &c.

[†] The English possessions abroad remaining shut against our commodities.

having the English market thus closed for their cattle, turned their attention to increasing and improving their breed of sheep, for the sake of the wool, which they began to manufacture very largely; and although here again met by the cruel operation of the other part of the same unjust law, which shut their woollen manufactures from the colonies, yet foreign exports very considerably increased.

The framers and followers out of the cruel policy we are exposing, did not expect this result; and seeing it, only became the more determined to crush the manufacture in question. This, as we have before noted, and shall presently shew more in detail, they succeeded in doing before the end of the century.

By the act 1 William and Mary, chap. 32, while the England's prohibition was continued against woollen goods from Ire-own interest land, the import of the raw materials from that country into England, which had never been interrupted, was limited to certain ports therein named. This limitation was by no means with a view to prevent or check the Irish raw wool from coming; for England was very glad to take it to work up herself; but would appear to have been designed in order to ensure the more easy detection of the manufactured article, should an attempt be made to smuggle it, under cover of the free import of the raw material.

In the reign of William the aggressions upon us recom- Aggressions menced by the 7 and 8 Will. III. chap. 22; which extended the prohibition of direct import of certain colonial Colonies articles into Ireland, enacted in Charles II.'s reign, to all colonial articles whatsoever. In the succeeding year, 1697, Our woollen a bill was openly brought in, in the English parliament, to tures crushed. forbid all export from Ireland of her woollen manufactures. It passed the Commons; but although favourably received in the Lords, and much debated there, it did not pass the Upper House before the dissolution of the parliament,

Details of this iniquitous proceeding.

which occurred in the July of that year. There was very little reclamation against this conduct from the Irish parliament; partly because the attention of the latter was a good deal diverted and distracted by the passing of an English act in the previous session, which admitted Irish linens, hemp, and flax into England. But one other cause prevailed. The Irish Catholics (by the infamous breach of the treaty of Limerick, after their gallant army, on the faith of that treaty, had expatriated itself, and so rendered safe the violation of the treaty) were laid prostrate, but were still formidable. The dominant party knew that their only hope of securing and permanently establishing their ascendancy was, by ensuring the constant aid of England; and to propitiate her, they had to countenance her aggressions upon the commercial interests of their country. We will do them the charity to say, that they did so with reluctance, but they did so most certainly. In 1698-9 they not only allowed the long meditated and final blow to descend upon our woollen manufactures; but, at the imperious demand of England, actually gave it strength and certainty themselves, by anticipating the English legislature, and enacting (by the 10 Will. III. chap. 3,) their own disgrace and the commercial ruin of their country!

Addresses of the English Houses of Parliament to William 111. in 1698, to this effect. The English parliament began the matter, but as we have said, the so-called Irish parliament anticipated them in its completion. In England it commenced in June, 1698. On the the 9th of that month, the House of Lords addressed King William, stating (English Lords' Journals 1698, pp. 314-315.):—

That the growing manufactures of cloth in Ireland, both by the cheapness of all sorts of necessaries of life, and goodness of materials for making all manner of cloths, doth invite your subjects of England with their families and servants to settle there, to the increase of the woollen manufactures in Ireland; which makes your loyal subjects in England very apprehensive, that the further growth of it may greatly prejudice the said manufacture here, by which the trade of this nation, and the value of lands will greatly decrease, and the number of your people be

much lessened here.

Wherefore we humbly beseech your most sacred majesty, that your majesty would be pleased, in the most public and effectual way that may be, to declare to all your subjects of Ireland, that the growth and increase of the woollen manufacture there hath long been, and will be ever looked upon with great jealousy, by all your subjects of this kingdom, and if not timely remedied, may occasion very strict laws totally to prohibit and suppress the same. And, on the other hand, if they turn their industry and skill to the settling and improving the linen manufacture, for which, generally, the lands are very proper, they shall receive all the countenance, favour, and protection from your royal influence for the encouragement and promotion of the linen manufacture, to all the advantage and profit they can be capable of.

The address of the Commons was in the following terms:—

Your Majesty's most dutiful and loyal subjects, the Commons in Parliament assembled, being very sensible that the wealth and power of this kingdom do in a great measure depend on the preservation of the woollen manufacture, as much as possible, entire to this realm, think it becomes us, like our ancestors, to be jealous of the increase and establishment of it elsewhere, and to use our utmost endeavours to prevent it; and, therefore, we cannot without trouble observe that Ireland, which is dependent on, and protected by England in the enjoyment of all they have, (and which is so proper for the linen manufacture, the establishment and growth of which there, would be so enriching to themselves, and so profitable to England,) should of late apply itself to the woollen manufacture, to the great prejudice of the trade of this kingdom, and so unwillingly promote the linen trade, which would benefit both themselves and us; the consequence whereof will necessitate your Parliament of England to interpose to prevent the mischief that threatens us, unless your majesty, by your authority and great wisdom, shall find means to secure the trade of England, by making your subjects of Ireland to pursue the joint interests of both kingdoms. And we do most humbly implore your Majesty's protection and favour in this matter, that you will make it your royal

care, and enjoin all those you employ in Ireland, to make it their care, and use their utmost diligence, to hinder the exportation of wool from Ireland, except to be imported hither, and to discourage the woollen manufacture, and encourage the linen manufactures, of Ireland, to which we shall always be ready to give our utmost assistance.

King William gave the following reply to the House of Commons:—

His answer.

I shall do all that in me lies to discourage the woollen manufacture in Ireland, and to encourage the linen manufacture there, and to promote the trade of England.

False statements of these addresses. In these addresses there were three false averments: first, that Ireland was more fitted for linen than for woollen manufacture; second, that the latter was recently set up; and third, that its establishment in Ireland was of great prejudice to English interests.

As to the first—which is rather suggested than distinctly stated—its inconsistency with truth cannot for a moment be doubted, when we recollect that Ireland had the raw material for woollen manufacture in abundance and excellence at home. Not so in the case of linen. Flax-seed, the foundation of the material, was to be imported; its culture here was always precarious, owing to the humidity of the climate. And again, wool employed more hands, and yielded a greater profit to the public and to the manufacturer—considerations, of course, of great importance in any country, but particularly so in one so unfortunately circumstanced as Ireland. Anderson, in his History of Commerce, vol. iii, p. 194, remarks as follows on this point:—

It requires about 20 acres of land to breed wool for setting at work the same number of hands which one acre of flax would employ; and yet in the end, the woollen manufacturer will be found to employ by far the greater number of hands, and yield the most profit.

The second averment, to the effect that the Irish had only recently taken up this manufacture, can be quickly disposed of. A glance at the report of the commissioners of enquiry into the condition of the hand-loom weavers, printed in 1840, by order of the House of Commons, will give, on parliamentary authority, the fact of Irish woollen goods being in demand and high repute in foreign countries, Anderson's History of Commerce so early as 1357. records several successive notices of this manufacture in acts of parliament, or otherwise, during the succeeding three centuries. In 1655, it was mentioned along with the wool manufacture of England herself, in one of the articles of a treaty then negociating between Cromwell and the ministers of Louis XIV. And wherever mentioned, whether in the many acts of parliament of both countries relative to the subject, or in treaties, or by individual writers, it is spoken of as a manufacture of good foreign demand, and giving abundant employment at home.

The third averment, viz.—that of injury to British interests, had no foundation in the existing state of matters. Adam Smith, in his "Memoirs of Wool," (vol. 2, p. 244,) states, "that though the amount was increasing, yet, that the Irish in 1698 had not recovered one-third of the woollen trade which they had before the war." No market could be shewn from which Ireland had excluded England as to woollens, or where she was even a notable competitor. No proof was attempted of the allegation in any one way. The English commissioners of trade did indeed (in 1698) report that the difference between wool and labour in the two countries respectively, amounted to an advantage for Ireland of one-third; and that to reduce Irish woollens to an equality with British, so high as 44 per cent. might be laid on the former above what was on the latter in export duties. But in the proof of this they utterly failed, notwithstanding which failure, such was the remorseless and reckless selfishness of the English parliament, and the interested obsequiousness of what was called the Irish parliament, that crushing duties were laid on all Irish woollens, (except friezes before taken off the loom,) and of all materials, and everything used in working up the material, even to the working utensils!

King Wil-

In pursuance of his reply, King William wrote immeliam's letter to the Irish diately after (on the 16th July, 1698) to one of the Lords on the sub- Justices of Ireland, Lord Galway, as follows:—" The chief thing that must be prevented is, that the Irish parliament take no notice of this here, and that you make effectual laws for the linen manufacture, and discourage as far as possible the woollen. It never was of such importance to have a good session of parliament. (Rapin, vol. 17, p. 417.)

How the matter was pushed in Ireland.

The work we have before noticed, viz. "The Commercial Restraints of Ireland Considered," so well describes the manner in which the affair was pushed in the Irish Parliament, that we shall here insert its description at length (pp. 99 to 105):-

The Houses of Parliament in England originally intended, that the business should be done in the parliament of Ireland, by the exertion of that great and just influence which King William had acquired in that kingdom. On the first day of the following session,* the Lords Justices in their speech, mention a bill transmitted for the encouragement of the linen and hempen manufactures, which they recommend in the following words: "The settlement of this manufacture will contribute much to people the country, and will be found much more advantageous to this kingdom than the woollen manufacture, which being the settled staple trade of England, from whence all foreign markets are supplied, can never be encouraged here for that purpose; whereas the linen and hempen manufactures will not only be encouraged, as consistent with the trade of England, but will render the trade of this kingdom both useful and necessary to England."

^{* 27}th September, 1698, vol. ii. p. 994. .

The Commons, in their address,* promise their hearty endeavours to establish a linen and hempen manufacture in Ireland, and say that they hoped to find such a temperament in respect to the woollen trade here, that the same may not be injurious to England. They referred the consideration of that subject to the committee of supply, who resolved that an additional duty be laid on old and new drapery of the manufacture of this kingdom,† that shall be exported, friezes excepted; to which the House agreed.‡ But there were petitions presented against this duty, and relative to the quantity of it, and the committee appointed to consider of this duty were not, it seems, so expeditious in their proceedings, as the impatience of the

times required.

On the second of October, the Lords Justices made a quickening speech to both Houses, taking notice, that the progress which they expected was not made in the business of the session, and used those remarkable words: "The matters we recommended to you are so necessary, that the prosperity of this kingdom depends so much on the good success of this session, that since we know his Majesty's affairs cannot permit your sitting very long, we thought the greatest mark we could give of our kindness and concern for you, was to come hither, and desire you to hasten the dispatch of the matters under your consideration: in which we are the more earnest, because we must be sensible, that if the present opportunity his Majesty's affection to you hath put into your hands be lost, it seems hardly to be recovered."

On the second of January, 1699, O. S., the House resolved, that the report from the committee of the whole House, appointed to consider of a duty to be laid on the woollen manufactures of this kingdom, should be made on the next day, nothing to intervene. But on that day a message was delivered from the Lords Justices in the following words: "We have received his Majesty's commands to send unto you a bill, entitled an Act for laying an additional duty upon woollen manufactures exported out of this kingdom; the passing of which in this session his Majesty recommends to you, as what may be of great advantage for the preservation of the trade of this kingdom."

The bill which accompanied this message was presented, and a question for receiving it was carried in the affirmative by 74 against 34. This bill must have been transmitted from the

^{*} Com. Jour. vol. ii. p. 997. ‡ October 24, 1698.

Com. Jour. p. 1032.

[†] Com. Jour. vol. ii. p. 1022.

[§] Com. Jour. vol. ii. p. 1007, 1035. ¶ Com. Jour. vol. ii. 1082.

Council of Ireland. Whilst the Commons were proceeding with the utmost temper and moderation, were exerting great firmness in restraining all attempts to enflame the minds of the people,* and were deliberating on the most important subject that could arise, it was taken out of their hands; and the bill passed, though not without opposition,† and received the royal assent on the 29th day of January, 1698.

By this act an additional duty was imposed, of 4s. for every 20s. in value of broad-cloth exported out of Ireland, and 2s. on every 20s. in value of new drapery, friezes only excepted, from the 25th of March, 1699, to the 25th of March, 1702; the only manufacture excepted, was one of which Ireland had been in possession before the reign of Edward III., and in which she had always been distinguished. This law has every appearance of having been framed on the part of administration.

But it did not satisfy the English parliament, where a perpetual law was made, prohibiting from the 20th of June, 1699,¶ the exportation from Ireland of all goods made or mixed with wool, except to England and Wales, and with the licence of the commissioners of the revenue: duties** had been before laid on the importation into England equal to a prohibition, therefore this act has operated as a total prohibition of the exportation.

Before these laws, the Irish were under great disadvantages in the woollen trade, by not being allowed to export their woollen manufactures to the English colonies, †† or to import dye-stuffs directly from thence: and the English, in this respect, and in having those exclusive markets, possessed considerable advantages.

The accounts given by Lord Oriel in his "Paper on the Linen Trade," and by other authorities, of the leading

^{*} Com, Jour. vol. ii. p. 1007. † Com. Jour. 1104, by 105 against 41.

toli, John Vol. 19 10 Will. III. chap. 5. § And. on Com. vol. i. p. 204.

The Commissioners of Trade in England, by their representation of the 11th October, 1698, say (Eng. Com. Jour. xii. vol. 437,) "they continue the continue to the co the 11th October, 1000, say (Eng. Com. Johr, XII. vol. 437,) "they conceive it not necessary to make any alteration whatsoever in this act," but take notice that the duties on broad cloth, of which very little is made in Ireland, is 20 per cent.; but the duty on new drapery, of which much is made, is but 10 per cent.

¶ Eng. Stat. 10 and 11 Will. III. chap. 10, passed in 1699.

** 12 Charles II. chap. 4, Eng. and afterwards continued by 11 George I.

chap. 7, Brit.

^{††} By an Eng. act, made in 1663, the same which laid the first restraint on the exportation of cattle.

facts connected with this fatal measure to Ireland, thoroughly correspond with what we have given.

Injustice ever comes back ultimately upon its authors; and accordingly England herself suffered from the ungenerous and cruel destruction of our woollen manufactures. We here again quote the work from which the preceding extract is taken.

Mr. Dobbs, who wrote in 1729,* affirms that by this law of 1699, our woollen manufactures were forced away into France, Germany, and Spain; that they had in many branches so much improved the woollen manufacture of France, as not only to supply themselves, but to vie with the English in foreign markets, and that by their correspondence they had laid the foundation of the running of wool thither, both from England and Ireland. He says, that those nations were then so improved as in a great measure to supply themselves with many sorts they formerly had from England, and since that time, have deprived Britain of millions instead of thousands that Ireland might have made.

It is now acknowledged that the French undersell the English, and as far as they are supplied with Irish wool, the loss to the British empire is double what it would be if the Irish exported their goods manufactured. This is mentioned by Sir Mathew Decker, t as the cause of the decline of the English, and the increase of the French woollen manufactures; and he asserts that the Irish can recover that trade out of their hands. England, since the passing of this law, has got much less of our wool than before. In 1698 the export of our wool to England, amounted to 377,520\(\frac{3}{4} \) stone; at a medium of eight years, to Lady day, 1728, it was only 227,049 stone, which is 148,000 less than 1698, and was a loss of more than half a million yearly to England. In the last ten years, the quantity exported has been so greatly reduced, that in one of these years it amounted only to 1,007 stone, 11 lb., and in the last year did not exceed 1,665 stone, 12 lb. The price of wool under an absolute prohi-

tioned in the Addendum to this Appendix.

^{*} Essay on the Trade of Ireland, p. 6, 7.
† Decline of Foreign Trade, p. 55, 56, 155. ‡ Dobbs, p. 76. § In 1774.

|| Nor was this deficiency made up by the exportation of yarn. The quantities of these several articles exported from 1764 to 1778, are men-

bition is £50 or £60 per cent. under the market price of Europe,

which will always defeat the prohibition.*

The impracticability of preventing the pernicious practice of running wool is now well understood. Of the thirty-two counties in Ireland, nineteen are maritime, and the rest are washed by a number of fine rivers that empty themselves into the sea. Can such an extent of ocean, such a range of coasts, such a multitude of harbours, bays, and creeks be effectually guarded?

The prohibition of the export of live cattle forced the Irish into the re-establishment of their woollen manufacture; and the restraint of the woollen manufacture was a strong temptation to the running of wool. The severest penalties were enacted; the British legislature, the government, and the House of Commons of Ireland, exerted all possible efforts to remove this growing evil, but in vain, until the law was made in Great Britain† in 1739, to take off the duties from woollen or bay yarn exported from Ireland, excepting worsted yarn of two or more threads, which has certainly given a considerable check to the running of wool, and has shewn the policy of opening is far more efficacious than that of restraining. The world is become a great commercial society—exclude trade from one channel, and it seldom fails to find another.

To these sensible remarks, we add those of Anderson, as little a friend to Irish commercial interests as any of his countrymen.

Concerning these laws, (viz. the restrictions on Irish cattle and Irish woollens,) many think them hurtful; and that it would be wiser to suffer the Irish to be employed in breeding and fattening their black cattle for us, than to turn their lands into sheep-walks, as at present, in consequence of which, in spite of all our laws, they supply foreign nations with their wool.—(Anderson, vol. 2, p. 645.)

The Irish part of the arrangement of 1688-9 being carried out by those who were acting as representatives of

† This was done for the benefit of the woollen manufacture in England, — Eng. Com. Jour. vol. xxii. p. 442.

^{*} Smith's Memoirs of Wool, vol. ii. p. 554. "The only way to prevent it, is to enable us to work it up at home."—ib. 293.

Ireland, it is to be seen how the English did their part. The linen manufac-And first it is to be here remarked, that nothing can be ture no equivalent for more unfounded than a notion very prevalent with English valent for the loss of the woolen. writers, and adopted by some Irish, to the effect that the linen manufacture was left us as an equivalent for the taking away of that of woollens. In the first place, why should a country be restricted from any manufacture, in which its inhabitants might consider they could profitably embark? In the next place a manufacture that co-existed with another, can scarcely be considered a proper and real equivalent for the destruction of that other. If a robber deprive his victim of a portion of the contents of his purse, and leave him the remainder, that remainder would not be considered by the victim, or by any body else, as an equivalent for what was taken away. It is true, the linen manufacture had not gone so far as the woollen, but that very circumstance ought to have been an additional reason not to confine Ireland to it alone.

Desirous, when practicable, to quote from documents of Co-existthe present day, particularly from such as have received both. the parliamentary stamp of acceptance, we insert the following, taken indifferently from the reports of Messrs. Otway and Muggeridge, assistant-commissioners.

In a curious little poem written in the reign of Henry VI., Report R. about the year 1430, by Haklayt, in the enumeration of the M. Mugger-idge, Esq. commodities of every country, he mentions the linen-cloth of

In 1533, the act 24 Henry VIII. chap. 4, required "every Handloom person occupying 60 acres of tilled land to sow a quarter of an enquiry. acre yearly in flax or hemp, for the purpose of protecting and encouraging the linen manufacture by an adaquate supply of the raw material."

The linen-trade was enumerated as one of the principal Report of branches of Irish manufacture, in the thirty-third of Henry way, Esq. VIII., 1542.....In an act of the thirtcenth year of Elizabeth's reign, it was recited, that Irishmen had been exporters of

linen for more than 100 years......Lord Strafford adopted extensive measures to encourage the linen manufacture. He sent to Holland for flax-seed, and to the Netherlands for competent workmen. To animate others, he embarked in the business £30,000 of his private fortune. (N.B. This "private fortune" mainly consisted of his lion's share of the plunder of Ireland.) But the troubles that then broke out, put a stop to the enterprize. The Duke of Ormond, Charles the Second's lieutenant, sought to revive it, and procured several acts for its encouragement, and for inviting Protestant strangers to settle in the kingdom. He sent Irishmen to be instructed in the details of the linen manufacture in Flanders, and brought over 500 Brabant families, expert in the business, and also operatives from was followed by many others, and Lord Dungannon, in Ulster, gave encouragement with great success to the Scotch settlers.Laurence, in his work, entitled "the Interest of Ircland," published in 1682, says, "My opinion is, that there is not a greater quantity of linen produced in the like circuit in Europe," &c., &c.

The linen manufacture, then, having co-existed with the woollen, could not properly be an equivalent for the latter, and above all, when, as we have before remarked, it was a more difficult, costly, and uncertain manufacture; and also one yielding much less employment.

Did England keep her promise to favour our linen trade?

But such as it was, did England do her part towards the so-called international agreement of 1688-9? She was to encourage our linens, and the declaration of her Houses of Parliament to that effect in 1698, were taken as decisive assurances of her determination to follow out the policy indicated in an act of 1696, the 7 & 8 Will. III. chap. 39, which recited "that great sums of money were yearly exported out of England for the purchasing of hemp, flax, and linen, and the productions thereof," which might be prevented by being supplied from Ireland; and therefore natives of England and Ireland were to be allowed to "import into England, free of all duties, hemp, flax, linen, and all the productions thereof."

No further encouragement, however, was given in this keep for respect until the year 1705, when the act 3 & 4 Anne, 6 years. chap, 8, passed, allowing us to export our white and brown linens to the colonies—a thing which, before the 15 Chas. II. chap. 7, we could do with all our commodities, and which proved nugatory as to benefit now, inasmuch as the restraint on our imports from those colonies prevented interchange, and thereby most seriously crippled the trade that otherwise might have taken place.

This restraint on our imports from the colonies had, as we have seen, originated in 1670, by the 22 & 23 Chas, II. chap. 26, and applied to a number of valuable commodities. But its scope was enlarged, and made to include all commodities by an act in 1696, the 7 & 8 Will. III. chap. 22. It is true these acts allowed us to get colonial commodities still, but not unless first unloaded and then taken on board again in an English port, and carried in an English

vessel.

Any encouragement really given by England to our And then linen manufacture, was directly with a view to her own with a view benefit—of ours she was little regardful. A duty was in-interest. deed placed upon foreign linen, but it was allowed to be drawn back again on exportation from England, and the drawback was found in practice to operate as a premium upon German and Russian linens. The bounties given later on the export of Irish linens from England, were confined to those of 1s. 3d. per yard, and if stamped, they forfeited the bounty, although allowed to German stamped linens. The retailing and stamping of our linens in England gave great employment there; and the bounty on Irish export to England was in fact an advantage to the British merchant, as he got into his own hands the business of the re-exportation to foreign countries, to which Ireland ceased to export direct.

Some valuable kinds shut out from England,

So little was England really disposed to keep her proof our linens mise, that our linens painted, striped, chequered, printed, stained, or dyed, were practically excluded by her so early as 1711, by the act 10 Anne, chap. 19, which was directed against all such linens made in foreign parts, and was, by a strained construction made to apply to Ireland.

as before from colonies and plantations.

The striped, chequered, &c. linens of the latter country were thus shut out (we have used the word "practically" in the preceding paragraph, as the import duties of 30 per cent. imposed by the 10th of Anne, and confirmed by the 11 & 12 Anne, chap. 9, amounted, in practice and effect, to an exclusion) from England; and, by the Navigation Act, 15 Car. II. chap. 7, had before been excluded from America and the British West Indies, into which latter they were not admitted until 1777-8, when the British act 18 Geo. III. chap. 55, passed, allowing them to go there, but without the advantage of the bounty on export, given to similar goods from England to all parts of the world, by an act dated eight years earlier. The admission then allowed was of little practical value, as the restrictions on direct import from the colonies still existed as to many important articles, and of course rendered the colonists very indifferent as to commerce with us.

Advantage to the white and brown linens of England over ours.

We got indeed, nominally, equal bounties on export to foreign countries of her white and brown linens, by the 14 Geo. II. chap. 29, but the benefit was infinitely less to us than to England, as we could only get that bounty by exporting from an English port, and the expense of freight, insurance, commission, &c., in this first transit of our linens was computed to deduct 4, and sometimes even 5 or 6 per cent. from the 12 per cent. amount of the premium, whereas the English manufacturer, having comparatively no preliminary charges, was not subject to deductions.

We are by no means done with the exposure of the de-

lusion respecting English encouragement of our linen-trade. Our market at her com-While England took away her own market, and that of mand for everyspecies every part of the globe in which she held power, from our of linen she chose to chequered, &c., linens, she endeavoured to deprive them manufaceven of our own home market. This she in a great degree accomplished, owing to the inefficiency of the duty on her chequered, striped, &c., linens coming into Ireland. It was no more than 10 per cent. ad valorem, and the linen not valued. The power which she had until 1782, of controlling our legislation, by the necessity we were under of submitting all projects of law for the approval of the English privy-council, before discussion in the Irish parliament, of course enabled her to prevent all attempts at even making the existing duty effectual.

But England had the benefit of a bounty in addition, and its effects were not only to increase the advantage of English linens of the above kind over those of Ireland. but by raising the price of yarn, to inflict a heavy discouragement on all species of Irish linens. A committee of the Irish Commons reported in 1771, "on the linen manufactures of Ireland, and her title to encouragement thereof," and we take the following from one of the papers laid before them by the Trustees of the Linen Manufacture:

Cheques and striped linens, such as are exported, are generally made of yarn, about 10d. or 11d. value in the pound, great part of which is imported into Britain from Ireland; and as 1tb. of yarn will, on a medium, make upwards of three yards of those cheques or striped goods, a bounty of \(\frac{1}{2} d \). per yard is a premium of upwards of $1\frac{1}{2}d$. on the pound of yarn, in favour of the manufacturer in Britain over the manufacturer in Ireland, from which bounty the Irish cheques, striped or printed linens, &c., are totally excluded, their importation into Britain being prohibited.

Meantime England had before secured her market for her other linens. This was done by the 3 Geo. I. chap.

21, passed in 1716, whereby the act of the 3 & 4 Anne, allowing export of our linens to the colonies, was enacted to be continued "so long as the merchants and others of Great Britain shall be permitted to import into Ireland, free of all duties, white and brown linen-cloth."*

Breach of her promises.

Thus, so far as we have gone, we have seen that England not only deprived us of the manufacture most suited to us, viz., the woollen, and made us confine ourselves to the more expensive and precarious manufacture of linen, but she virtually broke her promise of peculiar encouragement to that, by not passing one law in its favour that she did not give the benefit of, in more ample measure, to herself, and by keeping the Irish market open for her own linens, while she crippled and restricted the entry of those of Ireland into her market.

Our sailcloth manufacture destroyed.

She did yet more than this to benefit her own interest in this branch, at the expense of Ireland. By an act of the year 1750, the 23rd Geo. II. chap. 32, she heavily taxed the import of sail-cloth made of *Irish* hemp. The consequence to us was this; that whereas in 1750 we exported more sail-cloth than we imported, matters so changed, that in 1784 we were exporting none, and imported 180,000 yards. And for several years after, England herself reaped no benefit from this wanton injury to us, as the trade thus lost to the Irish, fell into the hands of the Russians, Germans, and Dutch,† notwithstanding three or four acts encouraging the manufacture in England and Scotland.

Again, lest by any possibility Ireland should reap much benefit from the act of 1742, (delusive as it was to a great extent,) which gave bounties on the export of Irish,

^{*} Clause 4 of this act transferred to the Crown, that portion of the penalties in former acts, on export of Irish wool, which had previously been applied "to the encouragement of the linen manufacture of Ireland!" † See Journals, H. Com. Ireland, years 1774—1784.

as well as English linens, exported from England, an act Further of the year 1756, the 29 Geo. II. chap. 15, provided, that on our linent trade. no Irish linen so exported should be entitled to the bounty, if it were the property of a resident in Ireland!

But it was not alone her own linen trade which England Encouraged encouraged, and gave advantages to, beyond what she did Scotch linens. to redeem her engagement of fostering that of Ireland. The Scotch were also brought into the field, to compete with the Irish in that trade. This was immediately a necessity of the times after the union with Scotland, when it was important to do all that could be done, to calm down the irritation in that country, produced by the carrying of that measure.

Accordingly a portion of the sum given to Scotland. under the terms of the Act of Union, as an "equivalent" for her assuming joint fiscal responsibility with England, was specially allocated for the encouragement of her manufactures, including her linen.*

Special legislation for the same purpose followed, particularly by the Act 13 Geo. I. chap. 26; and from thence-

* This grant, given under the act of Scotch Union, and confirmed and explained by the 13 Geo. I. chap. 30, was of the amount of £2000—a very large sum at that time to so exceedingly poor a country as Scotland. It was to be an annuity redeemable at any time by the English parliament, on payment of £40,000. What occurred? The "Board of Commissioners for the encouragement of Scottish Manufactures," which was created for the management of this fund, "did not begin operations till 1727; by which time (i. e. 20 years from the Union) £40,000 had accumulated, on which, after termination of the series of years Government have payed as the sum of the series of years. time (i. e. 20 years from the Union) £40,000 had accumulated, on which, after termination of the series of years, Government have, EVER SINCE, paid £2000 a year as interest." The words in inverted commas are from a letter written in February, 1841, by Sir Thomas Dick Lauder, "Secretary to the Royal Board of manufactures, Edinburgh," addressed to "J. R. Mallet, Esq. Capel-street, Dublin," and published, it is to be supposed, with the consent of both gentlemen, in the Dublin papers of the above month. One thing seems to be omitted in Sir T. Lauder's statement, viz.—that the "series of years" which he speaks of, was only determinable on the payment of £40,000. Now as he states that this series did terminate, it follows, that not only have the Scotch manufacturers had the benefit of the annual £2000 for 116 years; but that while yet in their infancy, they got annual £2000 for 116 years; but that while yet in their infancy, they got in a lump sum, £40,000. (See section 14 of the Act 13 Geo. I. chap. 30.)

forward every advantage which England gave her own linen and hempen manufactures, she gave equally to those of Scotland; and therefore of course placed those of the latter in the same position of advantage as her own, over the similar manufactures of Ireland. Nay, in 1753, she gave the Scotch an advantage to some degree over herself, by the act 26 Geo. II. chap. 20, which withdrew the export bounty on English and Irish coarse linens, and enacted that £3000 a year for nine years should be given as bounty upon that export from Scotland.

Our complaint not against favour to Scotland, but against oppression of us. Our complaint is not against the abstract fact of Scotland's being brought into the field as a competitor with us. No such false view of political economy, or social justice, is taken in Ireland, as that either of the other portions of the empire should be, or should have been, debarred from seeking their national prosperity, by all the means placed at their disposal by the bounteous providence of heaven. Our proper and real ground of complaint is, that we should have been deprived of one manufacture, while the other portions of the empire were left at liberty to pursue it, as well as all other branches of industry.

Circumstances that facilitated the depression of our manufacturing industry.

Mr. Assistant Commissioner Otway, in his report on the hand-loom weavers' commission, (part iii. February, 1840,) has ascribed to its true cause, the rapidity with which before the mere breath of the legislature, Irish manufactures, though long established, and apparently vigorous in growth, declined and disappeared. His remarks on this subject well merit perusal, and therefore we insert them at length, although that length is considerable for our limits, and that we do not altogether concur in one or two of the positions laid down by him:—

One great and fatal error in the system of colonization to which I have adverted was, that it became a fixed principle of

policy to exclude the native Irish from the benefits of all the improved arts introduced by the new settlers. It had been found, that the Anglo-Norman lords who had obtained estates from the Plantagenets, became, in the course of time, alienated from English allegiance and usages; to use the phrase of the day, they were "Hibernis ipsis Hiberniores." To prevent such a result from the new settlement was perversely regarded as an object of greater importance than the settlement itself; it was said to be essentially necessary "to preserve and maintain an English interest in Ireland." But for the unhappy difference of religion between the settlers and the natives, this exclusive system would not have been long maintained; the Irish and the English would gradually have amalgamated, like the Normans and the Saxons; but the distinction of religion gave strength and permanence to the distinction of race, and rendered the line of demarcation scarcely less broad than if it had been perpetuated by difference of colour and physical organization.

The hand-loom weavers, the wool-combers, the clothiers, the dyers, the white-smiths, and even the mariners, in the South of Ireland, were so exclusively Protestant, that they would not allow a Roman Catholic apprentice to be received in any of their trades. The only branch of manufactures permitted to the "mere Irish" was that of brogues or common shoes; and even this trade was not permitted to be carried on within the precincts of walled towns. Hence, these manufactures were, and continued to be, exotics; they struck no root in the soil.

The early settlers were long a flourishing and numerous body. In 1689 William and Mary were proclaimed in several small towns in Munster; and the Protestant artizans raised a respectable army to resist James. At an earlier period the desertion of the royal cause by the Munster Protestants, under Lord Broghill and Inchiquin, was the principal cause of the easy conquest by Cromwell. It may be added, that James II., in his letters, ascribes his failures in Ireland to the fact that the Protestants alone understood the art of making and mending gun-locks, and that in consequence he never was able to keep his partizans supplied with serviceable arms.

During the reigns of William and Anne this exclusion of the Irish from all manufactures was rigorously continued; but to compensate for this, great encouragement was given to the immigration of foreign Protestants, especially the Huguenots, who had fled from France on the revocation of the edict of

Nantes. The bigotry of Louis the XIV. upset the magnificent schemes of his minister, Colbert, by the expulsion of his Huguenot subjects; and numbers of these men brought their arts, their industry, their capital, and their faith into Ireland -they established several branches of trade in various parts of the country—the woollen manufacture in the South—linens and cambries in the Counties of Down and Armagh, and the silk manufacture in Dublin. In support of these refugees, and the arts they carried with them, the Irish landed proprietors were very active—a subscription was raised, as appears from Primate Boulter's letters, for establishing the cambric manufacture in the town of Dundalk, amounting to £30,000, and a Monsieur De Joneourt was appointed to collect French operatives, and conduct the establishment. But the Huguenots adopted the baneful system of exclusion, and exerted themselves to prevent the Irish from learning their arts or profiting by their industry. The Duke of Ormond, following the example of the Earl of Cork, also prohibited the instruction of Roman Catholic apprentices, as did the principal landholders, who encouraged foreigners to settle on their estates.

Now this exclusive system at once destroyed the basis of all manufacturing prosperity—the home market. The fabrics introduced by the English and French settlers were of a superior quality, for which the native Irish could only gradually acquire a want, as they were raised in the scale of civilization. But instead of thus raising them, the foreign manufacturers, aided by the legislature, employed every possible means to depress them, and thus blindly drove from their market a whole nation of customers, and confined them to the use of the rude and cheap fabrics which were woven amongst themselves. The manufacturers were thus forced to rely on their foreign trade; but here they came into competition with the English merchants,

and aroused the spirit of commercial jealousy.

The act of William, prohibiting the export of Irish wool and woollens, destroyed the Irish woollen manufactures, simply because they depended almost solely on foreign sale for their support. There was no independent peasantry, or respectable

wealthy and middle class, for them to supply.

The Irish legislature saw this decline of manufactures, but could not discover a remedy; it attempted to supply the want of a home market by bounties, duties, and premiums. These of course aggravated the evil. The manufacturers looked to the premiums and the parliament, instead of their own industry and

the market, and expected that customers could be created by a statute. The manufactures in most places sunk by the sure process of gradual decay. Even where they maintained a lingering existence, the fabrics they produced became greatly

deteriorated in quality.

It may be asked why the manufactures of the North did not share the same fate of those of the South; but the question is easily solved by a glance at the state of the population in the province of Ulster. The settlement in Ulster was more complete and extensive than that in any other part of Ireland. natives had been either wholly exterminated or driven into mountainous and remote districts. The landlords and tenants in the manufacturing districts of the North thus belong to one class; they did not regard each other as hereditary enemies; there was no legacy of oppression on one side, and revenge on the other. The Ulster tenant felt (and feels) he had a property in his farm-something on the earth he could call his own; and the fruits of his industry would be allowed to accumulate into a small capital, and in point of fact, such an accumulation did take place; for the greater part of the capital in the linen manufactures of Ulster, was derived from the savings of agricultural industry, and hence arose the numerous class who were each at the same time a farmer, a weaver, and a linen-dealer (jobber). In the south of Ireland the title to property was unsettled; for more than a century confiscation and re-confiscation followed each other, until the Acts of Settlement and Explanation secured the followers of Cromwell in their estates; there was no community of feeling or interest between the proprietor and the occupants brought about by these acts. The great object was to establish an English interest in Ireland; and to accomplish this hereditary policy, the two last Stuarts, while they patronised Roman Catholics in their own courts, rigorously maintained the new Protestant proprietary in the South of Ireland. It was not until James the 2nd was driven from England, that he would allow even of an enquiry into the Act of Settlement, and it is doubtful whether he would have consented, even in Dublin, to its repeal, if a large portion of the re-confiscations had not reverted to the crown. repeal of the Irish Act of Settlement by the parliament of James the 2nd, gave the Protestant proprietors a fright from which they have not perfectly recovered even to this day: since that time they have been persuaded that every change of policy, or isolated disturbance, threatens their titles; they deem that they

only garrison their estates, and therefore they look upon the native occupants (I cannot call them tenants) as persons ready to eject them upon a favourable opportunity. Hence, the Munster landlord was afraid to give the persons who occupied his ground a permanent hold upon the land, or a beneficial interest in its

occupancy.

The old struggle of title, in natural course, produced the new contest of tenure; and Captain Rock and Lady Clare were as legitimately descended from the Catholic lords of the pale, as Jack Straw and Wat Tyler were from the Saxon thanes who fought at Hastings. There is, and until the relations between landlord and occupant are altered, there can be no accumulation of savings in the South of Ireland from agricultural industry—and hence there was not and can be no spontaneous

growth of manufactures from small capitals.

Another reason for the greater prosperity of the linen manufacture in the North of Ireland is, that in Ulster a moderate modus was established for the tithe of the flax; but all efforts to have the same modus extended to the rest of Ireland were defeated by the pertinacious opposition of the ecclesiastical authorities. Without at all entering on the general question of tithe, or the policy of taxing the raw materials of industry, it is enough to state that the impost on flax proved to be so heavy, that the farmers found it to be an unprofitable crop, and it was never cultivated, except in very small patches, in the South of Ireland.

In the present day the principal impediments to the growth of manufacturing industry arise from the want of a comfortable middle class, and the condition of the agricultural population.

Injury to the cause of truth from the one-sided reports to the Imperial Parliament.

In all this mass of rational remark, and clear-headed tracing out of cause and effect, it is singular that there should be only one sentence given to those active efforts of English commercial jealousy, the facile and successful operation of which he so well attributes, in the main, to the narrow basis to which sectarian bigotry restricted our manufactures. The reason of his avoidance of this topic, must simply have been, because his report was to be presented to an English parliament. Ever since the Union, this circumstance has exercised an influence most inju-

rious to the interests of Ireland, and of truth and justice, over the reports of committees and commissioners of enquiry, into matters affecting the international relations between the two countries. Mr. Otway's report is one of the very few honorable exceptions, in which that influence has not been allowed to extend as far as the suggestion falsi, however partly chargeable with the omissio veri.

The unavoidable length to which we have already gone nesessitates as brief a handling as possible, of the remain-

der of our subject.

The commercial jealousy of England was consistent England's jealousy throughout. We have seen that our woollen goods were consistent. practically excluded from her ports, while she had the command of ours. Nay she had been able to obtain from the Irish parliament in 1662, before the first fervour of its interested loyalty after the restoration of Charles II. had subsided, the prohibition by the Irish Act 14 and 15 Exercised Chas. II. chap. 8, of foreign woollen goods in Irish ports; woollens a concession in her favour that her conduct two years before, in shutting her ports to our woollens, very little deserved. But the same miserable spirit actuated that parliament as prevailed in that of King William-namely, that of making any sacrifice of national interests to obtain security for their own particular interests; so many of its members being persons who had acquired their properties by rapine and murder, in the time of Cromwell's bloodstained rule over Ireland.

We have also seen how scarcely even colourable the Against our promise to encourage our linen manufacture was proved to be. The historian Barlow well denominates it as "moonshine," and says that "England departed from the letter and the spirit of that compact."—(vol. i. chap. 10.)

By the Acts 15 Chas. II. chap. 5; 3 and 4 Anne, Cottons. chap. 4; 4 and 5 William and Mary, chap. 5; Irish cotton

manufactures were subjected to 25 per cent. on import into England; and lest this enormous charge should not be enough to exclude them, the Act 7 Geo. I. chap. 7, enacted penalties on the wearing of any such manufactures in Great Britain, unless there made. On the other hand, British cottons went into Ireland in immense quantities at only 10 per cent.

Beer and malt.

Import of hops.

Irish beer and malt were excluded from England, and her beer and malt sent into Ireland at almost a nominal duty. The 9th Anne, chap. 12, prohibited us from importing hops from any other place but Great Britain, styling such importation "a public and common nuisance." So determined were the English parliament that we should not otherwise be supplied in this particular, that when the prohibition of direct importation from the colonies and plantations of colonial goods was first relaxed, (which it was by the 4th Geo. II. chap. 16, passed in 1805, and declared to be so passed,) not on account of the hardship of the previous restrictions to us, but of "great prejudice to the trade and navigation of Great Britain and the said colonies," a statute was specially passed the year afterwards, (viz. the 5th Geo. II. chap 2,) declaring that the trifling relaxation enacted by the before-mentioned act should not be construed to allow hops into Ireland from those quarters, and four years afterwards the 7th Geo. II. chap. 19, further enforced and strengthened the restrictions.

This injustice will appear gross, and yet it is not all stated. Not only were we prevented supplying ourselves with hops elsewhere than from England, but the duty on their export from thence was not allowed to be drawn back in favour of the Irish consumer, and the money thus most unfairly wrung from him, was appropriated to the payment of an English debt!

The exclusion of our cattle, by the act of 1663, has been Export of mentioned before. It had not indeed excluded them in words, but the high duties then enacted, operated as a prohibition, and, with the additional precaution that marked the carrying out of all these injustices, another act was passed shortly after, (the 18th Chas. II. chap. 2,) specially, and in terms, prohibiting our cattle, and declaring that their import into England was "a public and common nuisance!"

We have before given an extract from Anderson, vol. xi. p. 645, describing these laws as unwise, and now quote him again.

Ireland is really a mine of treasure to Great Britain, and is so perhaps in a much greater degree than our American plantations; since so much of what is gained in Ireland, centres at length in Britain. Every severe step taken by us with regard to Ireland, has been advantageous to our foreign rivals. It is now clearly seen that the prohibition of live cattle from Ireland, in order to raise the price of our lands, was not well-judged. Even the restrictive laws on the woollen manufactures of Ireland forced the Irish workmen to settle in France; and thereby laid the foundation for the great woollen manufactures of that kingdom.

It is instructive to observe, in these and other extracts we have given, the quiet way in which every thing is argued for, and on account of, English interests; those of Ireland being totally left out of the question. This of course is natural; but is also very significant.

The English parliament excluded our cattle, but it was the wish of the English people to have them; and accordingly "they set about defeating the intentions of the legislature." This is proved by the confessions in the angry preambles of successive acts passed to enforce those of 1663 and 1666. At length the legislature had to give way under this pressure; and Irish cattle, and the provisions,

&c., manufactured from them, (which also had been excluded by an act of 1680,) were, in the reign of George the 2nd, admitted again into England; at first temporarily, but the acts opening the ports to them were continually and easily renewed.

Other miscellaneous articles.

Hats, glass, gunpowder, coals, bar-iron, iron-ware, and several other matters, some of which Ireland had not to export, and others of which she had very little, were at different times the objects of English restrictions; whensoever it was fancied that English interests were at all threatened by them. One of the most important of these articles, was that of glass; which, by an act of the 19th year of George the 2nd, Ireland was prohibited from importing from any country but Great Britain, and could not export the article at all.

Also silk.

In addition to the discouragements affecting our silk manufacture, in common with our other manufactures, it had the further discouragement, that coming to us as the raw material did, through England, the sum of three-pence in the pound was retained there, of the original import duty in that country; and the price thereby so much enhanced to us—in addition to the benefit, at our expense, to the English revenue.

The results affected not only Ire-land, but the British colonial, &c.,

It was impossible for a country thus hampered and restricted, not only in every point where competition with her jealous and powerful neighbour was at all likely, but possessions. in many where the apprehension of it was utterly without foundation, to make any real advances towards commercial prosperity. From the British possessions in both hemispheres, she was shut out, (from the East Indies by a clause in the 7th George I., chap. 21, but practically before,) as although she still could import their commodities through England, the trade was unable to bear the delays and expense of the double journey. These restraints were ulti-

mately injurious to the British possessions; as Ireland, unable to supply herself from them, had to get from foreign countries the materials for ship-building, some of those articles used in perfecting her staple manufacture, and other valuable imports. But of course the weight of the injury was upon Ireland, and to it was owing her poverty and embarrassments of the greater part of the eighteenth century.

We have quoted, at an early period of this article, Reference to authorities as to the prosperity of Ireland previous to the jury to Iredestruction of her natural staple, the woollen manufacture. land. After that the story was different. In the session of 1703, the Irish Commons laid before Queen Anne a true state of the deplorable condition of the country. They complained of vast decay and loss of its trade—its being almost exhausted of coin—of the poor having become very numerous —of the foreign trade and its returns being under such restrictions and discouragements as to be then become impracticable; although the kingdom of Ireland had by its blood and treasure contributed to secure the plantation trade to the people of England.

At the end of the session, Mr. Speaker Brodrick (afterwards Lord Chancellor) declared in his speech to the Lord Lieutenant, that the representations made by the Commons were their unanimous voice; and that they hoped they might be allowed such a proportion of trade, that they may recover from the great poverty they now lie under. (Irish Com. Jour. 3 vol. pp. 149-208.)

In the journals of the Irish Commons from thenceforward till within the last 20 years of the eighteenth century, will be found declaration after declaration, admission after admission, complaint after complaint, of the poverty and wretchedness of Ireland—the want of employment among her people-the wretched condition of her trade-the con-

sequent inability of the country to support her public burthens—and the cruelty of the restrictions that fettered and crippled her industry. Scarcely two years elapsed during the interval we have mentioned, without some of these disheartening records. The Irish parliament was impotent to redress the evils whose existence they thus recorded, not only as contained in resolutions and remonstrances of their own, but as admitted and acknowledged in speeches to them from the vice-throne. They were then under the fetters of Poyning's law, and the acts confirming it; and no bill for effectual relief of these distresses. by opening up the restricted and impeded sources of industry, would get the sanction of the English Privy Council, to which the laws in question compelled every legislative project to be submitted for approval, ere it could be introduced into the Irish parliament. This was the state of things until 1780-2.

But we need not delay upon this part of our subject, when we have the strong English testimony bearing upon it, with which this article commences.

Forcing of the linen manufacture. Meantime the linen manufacture undoubtedly increased; but there was little of natural vigour and stability about it. What progress it did make was mainly owing to the unremitting care and attention of the Irish parliament, so far as lay in their power; and to the impulse it received by the large immigration of foreign Protestants, versed in the manufacture, who were driven from France by the execrable revocation of the edict of Nantes. In the hand-loom weavers' report it is stated, that the Irish parliament, from 1700 up to 1777, expended in the encouragement of the linen trade, the sum of £1,295,560.

In the speeches from the vice-throne to the Irish parliament throughout the century, exhortations to the encouragement of that trade, coupled, as it invariably was, with that of the Protestant charter schools—the phrase being, "those sources of honest industry and pure religion," are to be found as regularly recurring as the "phrases banales" of royal speeches in our own days respecting the "assurances from foreign powers," and the "economy" with which the "estimates are framed."

The decisive proof, were such wanted, that the linen trade was not a healthy natural effort of the industry of the country, and exercising a genial influence on the national prosperity, is given by the very fact of its having required this constant encouragement and attention.

To the enumeration in detail of English injuries to our Additional injustice of trade, we have unfortunately to add one striking instance, England. general in its effect. From 1740 to 1759 there were no less than 24 embargoes in Ireland! One of these lasted three years-viz., from 1776 to 1779, when Irish provisions were restrained from being sent any where, but into England—nor was this altogether relaxed even in the latter year, as they were still restrained from being sent to America, the West Indies, or indeed any place out of Europe.

Thus, by all possible means-namely, by direct and actively oppressive legislation—by false interpretation and forced construction of laws supposed to have no such object -by real breach under a seeming observance of international engagements-and even by an unconstitutional exercise of the prerogative, Irish industry and enterprize were cruelly restrained and repressed to the verge of ruin.

We now approach the time when England had to retrace Remarks. her steps. Ere, however, leaving the first branch of our ligious discordenabled subject, we would make two short remarks. The first is, hertotyran-nize. that the wretched history we have been detailing, ought to make an impression upon every honest Irishman, and warn him from that execrable religious discord which so divided

the nation against itself, as to render it incapable of resisting these monstrous outrages.

2nd, She allowed us to follow the linen trade only during her pleasure.

Secondly, it is to be remarked generally on the conduct of England towards the only manufacture she allowed us any freedom in following, viz. the linen, that what freedom she gave, it was little other than that which the cat gives the mouse; whom she releases for an instant, certain of being able to put her paw on it when she pleases. England was not inclined towards the linen manufacture herself at the close of the 17th century, and to remove a rival in the woollen, had no objection to allow Ireland to follow the former; reserving to herself, as we have seen, advantages over the Irish linens, (not only by restrictions and cramping regulations of our export, and greater bounties and facilities in that respect for herself, but also by the complete command of our ports,) so as that whenever her own manufacturers should please to turn their attention to linen, they would have little need to dread Irish competition. In either country the woollen manufacture was the natural staple. In either it was the most profitable. similarity of climate rendered flax-seed an equally precarious crop in both countries—and in both it was of course a crop equally exhausting to the soil. Was it not cruel that the poorer country, Ireland, should be forced to confine herself to the more difficult and costly branch of manufacture; and yet have no security even in the pursuit of that.

Relaxation in her injustices owing to necessity, not benevolence.

The inevitable necessity of things, and not the considerations of justice and humanity, compelled England to retrace many of her steps in her course of commercial, as she did subsequently with regard to political oppression. She began to find out that she had been hurting herself in her over-eagerness to dominate over Ireland. We have before mentioned the first indications of this discovery, when, so early as 1739, (by the act 3rd Gco. II. chap. 3,) she had so

far to relax her restrictions on our products, as to allow import of Irish woollen or bay-yarn, as her own manufacturers were beginning to feel grievously the impetus given to the French woollen trade by the immense smuggled export of Irish wool to that country.* It had then been ascertained, that (to use the expression of the writers of that day) "one pack of Irish wool became two or three on the continent," as it enabled the foreigner, by admixture, to work up his own wool. Sir Mathew Decker, in his "Decline of Foreign Trade," and Dr. Smith, in his "Memoirs of Wool," both show how England suffered in this respect, and record, that though Irish wool sold at about 50 per cent. advance on the price in England, yet that labour in foreign countries was so much cheaper, and the advantages derivable by foreigners from mixing the Irish wool with their own, that they were enabled to undersell England in foreign markets.

The authorities we have mentioned (and various other writers) equally reprobated, and for similar reasons, the acts restricting import of Irish cattle and provisions into England, as we have earlier stated: it was in the same reign (viz., Geo. II.) in which Great Britain found it better for her interest to admit them, to exclude Irish wool and yarn, that she made the same discovery as to she articles of cattle and provisions.

* Mr. Ray, (Secretary to the Repeal Association,) in a brief but most excellent Report drawn up by him in 1840, on the Trade and Manufactures

that suggested this first relaxation.

excellent Report drawn up by him in 1840, on the Trade and Manufactures of Ireland, treats of the occurrence of 1739 as follows:—

"In 1739 it was found that Irish woollens were making their way to foreign ports, notwithstanding the stringency of the prohibitory laws. Permission was therefore given to export woollen and bay yarns to England, 'as it may be a means,' says the act, (12 Geo. II. chap. 11,) 'to prevent export of wool and woollen manufactures from Ireland to foreign parts, and may also be of use to the manufactures of Great Britain.' And more strict provisions against export of Irish woollen goods to foreign parts were embodied in this statute."

After this the reader can judge for himself of the degree of "benevolence" that suggested this first relaxation

English testimony to this effect.

These relaxations were prompted, as we have said, by a better understanding of her own interests, and were far more beneficial to the latter than to Ireland. Of the same description were those which succeeded them in 1778 and 1779, the one admitting Irish manufactured cotton yarn, and the other admitting Irish hemp.* The manufactures of Ireland from the woollen and cotton yarn, and from the hemp, were still rigorously excluded. At length came the time that no words of ours can so well describe, as it is described in the extract we have given at the commencement of this article, from the speech of the celebrated Mr. Huskisson in 1825—the time when "state-necessities acting under a sense of political danger, yielded without grace that which good sense and good feeling had before recommended in vain!"

The "necessity" pressing on her in 1779.

The following is a summary of the events of this time: On the failure of the attempt in 1779 (mentioned by Mr. Huskisson) to effect a real, though partial, opening of the colonial trade to Ireland, the citizens of Dublin, the grand juries in many parts of Ireland, and the people throughout the country, met and passed strong resolutions in their different assemblies, condemnatory of the "avarice and ingratitude" of Great Britain—her "illiberal and contracted policy," &c., &c., and pledging themselves to Irish manufacture. The author of "Collectanea Politica," (in the first volume of which, pages 161-2, will be found some of these resolutions,) after remarking, that in consequence of this resolve Irish manufactures began to revive, and the demand for British goods greatly decreased, dryly observes, that "this circumstances tended to produce a dis-

^{*} We purposely omit here the 18 Geo. III. chap. 55, allowing some direct export from Ireland to the British colonial possessions—first, because of its insultingly limited extent, and second, because it was futile in practice, owing to the restrictions on our direct import in return. We also omit two acts of Gco. II. which mocked us by nibbling at those restrictions, &c.

position in Great Britain, to attend to the complaints of this country, different indeed from that which Ireland had hitherto experienced."

External circumstances hastily ripened this disposition; France had joined her arms with those of struggling America, and the scale was turning against British interests in the new hemisphere. The combined fleets of France and Spain "rode triumphant in the channel." affrighted maritime towns made application to the Government for protection; part of the established forces of the nation having been called away to support the war in America, the chief governor was obliged to confess himself unable to afford assistance......The people of Ireland therefore resolved to defend themselves,—volunteer corps were formed in every part of the kingdom; their force and respectability saved the country from ruin. The fleets of the enemy, alarmed at our military preparations, beheld the banners of defiance, and fled with precipitation from our coasts. Parliament bore testimony to the services and loyalty of these patriotic guardians of Ireland. in votes of thanks to the several volunteer corps for their spirited exertions, at this time so necessary in defence of this country."—(Collectanea Politica, or, the Political Transactions of Ireland, from 1760 to 1800, vol. i, p. 166.)

The Irish parliament meeting on the 12th of October, Address of the Irish 1779, the Lord Lieutenant, the Earl of Buckinghamshire, in Commons. his speech from the throne, drew attention to the "extraordinary decline of the revenues, notwithstanding the very liberal supplies of the last session," and called upon the country for new efforts. The Commons, however, after a warm and interesting debate, replied by an address to the King, as follows :-

We beg leave humbly to represent to your Majesty, that it is not by temporary expedients, but by a free trade alone, that this

nation is now to be saved from impending ruin. And from your Majesty's gracious declaration—imprinted in our hearts in characters of indelible gratitude—that "anxious for the happiness of all your people, you will most cheerfully cooperate with your parliaments in such measures as may promote the common interests of all your subjects," we draw the happiest presages in favor of a measure essential to the existence of this kingdom, and which appears to us conducive to the interests of Great Britain.

Permit us to assure your Majesty, that we have every disposition to go as far as the national abilities will, in making a provision for the honourable support of your Majesty's government; but with hearts glowing with the warmest wishes for the prosperity and glory of the British empire, and full of zeal against the common enemy, we have the mortification to find, that the limited state of our trade and commerce must, by narrowing our resources, set bounds to our liberality, very far short of our earnest inclinations.—(Irish Commons' Journal, vol. xix.)

They were fully borne out by facts in the matters they thus advanced. Irish debt had enormously increased, in consequence of the falling off of the revenue, and so also had her drains. The profits of Ireland on all the trade that she had, were not estimated higher than £600,000 a year, while her remittances to England were computed at more than double that amount. But it is unnecessary to go into proofs of the distress of Ireland, when we have the admissions in the English parliament, not only on the occasions and by the persons which are mentioned in our first pages, but general admissions in 1778-9, as will be seen by reference to the debates in the English parliament during those years. In the latter year the ministry of the day, in defending themselves against the charge of having occasioned the grievances of Ireland, declared "that her grievances originated many years before, in the general system of trade laws-that the restrictions then laid on arose from a narrow, short-sighted policy, which, though conceived in prejudice, and founded on ignorance, was yet

so strengthened by time, and confirmed by the habits of a century, that it seemed at length wrought into, and became even a part of the constitution."—(Coll. Pol. p. 173.)

Notwithstanding these things, nothing was done in the England coerced into way of relief at that moment. Immediately after, however, relaxation. the Irish parliament took the strong measure of limiting the supplies to six months; and this was effective where argument failed, and accordingly the British minister at length proceeded to give relief. The various propositions for the purpose, from the first starting of the matter in 1778, were as follows:

In 1778, Lord Newhaven moved, in the English parliament, that Ireland should be allowed freedom of export, except of her woollen manufactures; and should have liberty of trading to and from America, the West Indies, and the Coast of Africa.

From this position he was gradually beaten down; until Detalls. in March, 1779, he had to reduce his motion to one for a repeal, in so far as related to the article of sugar, of that part of the Navigation Act of 1663, which compelled sugar intended for Ireland, to be first landed in England. This he at first carried by a majority of 47 to 42-but being afterwards deserted by the minister, on account of the violent outery of English and Scotch great towns, the motion was finally lost on a division of 62 to 58.

In November of that year, the Irish parliament resolved unanimously-

That the export from this kingdom of its woollen and other manufactures to all foreign places, would materially relieve its distresses, increase its wealth, promote its prosperity, and thereby advance the welfare of Great Britain, and the common strength, wealth, and commerce of the British empire.

That a liberty for this kingdom to trade with the British colonies in America and the West Indies, and the British settlements on the Coast of Africa, in like manner as trade is carried on between Great Britain and the said colonies and settlements, would be productive of very great commercial benefits—would be a most affectionate mark of the regard and attention of Great Britain to our distresses—and would give new vigour to the zeal of his Majesty's brave and loyal people of Ireland, to stand forward in support of his Majesty's person and government, and the interest, the honour, and the dignity of the British empire."—(Commons' Journal, Vol. 19.)

The British minister, coerced by the gathered force of public opinion, and the powerful additional stimulant of the short-money-bill from Ireland, accordingly moved on the 13th December, 1779, three propositions—first, for the repeal of those laws which prohibited export of Irish woollen goods and wool flocks to any part of Europe; second, that so much of the Act 19 Geo. II. as forbade import of glass into Ireland, save of British manufacture, and also forbade export of glass from Ireland, should be repealed; and third, that Ireland should have freedom of trade to all the British colonial settlements, subject to such limitations and regulations as the parliament of Ireland should impose.

The "FREE TRADE" of 1779-80.

The two first were quickly passed into law—the third was delayed till the next session, on the plea of some inquiry being necessary into its probable effect in Ireland. In the latter country the partial concessions were received in so good a spirit, that the supplies were immediately granted for a year and a half more.

Fresh invasions of Irish rights.

But this satisfaction was by no means unalloyed or lasting. England, unwisely for her own views of policy, had provoked the question of her right to control the legislature of Ireland—a question which had always been present to the Irish mind; and towards the discussion of which that mind had been of late strongly tending, with the determined purpose of asserting independence of legislation. The privy council in England altered a mutiny bill, (by

making it perpetual,) sent over as usual for their approbation, from Ireland. This was altogether an unconstitutional proceeding, and woke up at once the smouldering flame. In this article we have to deal only with commercial matters, so do not go into the details of the constitutional agitation and demand which then arose, further than in so far as commerce was concerned. The alteration in the mutiny bill was accompanied by a nearly equally exasperating alteration in a bill respecting the import of sugars. The business of sugar-refining had recently taken great head in Ireland, and the parliament here sought to defend it against the English monopoly by an import duty on refined sugar; while they sought to give it a fair stimulus by admitting raw sugar at a low rate. This the privy council reversed, reducing the duty on refined sugar 20 per cent. under the drawback allowed in England to the English refiner on export, and thereby giving the latter a virtual premium to that amount—and also increasing the duty on the raw sugar.

The time was ill-chosen for further invasions on Irish Their conrights. Irritation had long been rankling in Ireland at sequences. the restrictions on her commerce; and it had indeed already broken out into an overt act. One of the Dublin Corporation, Alderman Horan, resolved to test the question, whether the Irish woollen trade could be legally bound by the English act of William's reign, restricting it from foreign export. The act passed by the obsequious Irish parliament of that time, for the same purpose, had long before 1771 become extinct. Accordingly he tendered for entry outwards, at the Custom-house, Irish woollen goods. He was dissuaded* from pressing the point at the

This, as an English argument on Irish matters, was consistent.

^{*} The British Government indeed took care not to leave the issue to the chances of verbal remonstrance and persuasion—but prudently sent over, as a final argument, the "Stag" Frigate, to the bay of Dublin, to look out for Alderman Horan's vessel.

moment: but the affair made great sensation—and (as we see from official documents copied in the laborious and most interesting memoir of his father's life, from the pen of Henry Grattan, the excellent member for Meath) drew the serious and alarmed attention of the government.

These points of alterations in the mutiny bill and the sugar bill, were not considered in the Irish parliament till August 1780; and the delay by no means tended to calm the existing irritation—but grievously to impair the feelings of satisfaction and gratitude, which the Irish people had been disposed to demonstrate, after the commercial relaxations we have mentioned, as enacted in the English parliament in the month of February. Several minor circumstances concurred to exasperate them still further, and to render irrevocable, and soon after irresistible, their determination to have a free parliament, without which they saw they never could obtain the full extension of their trade, amongst other benefits sought, nor even be sure of preserving what had been conceded to them.

The Irish parliament disgraced itself at this juncture, by sanctioning the alterations in question. Their conduct in this respect excited great indignation against themselves; and the Merchants' Corps of Volunteers, the Independent Dublin and Liberty Corps, and several other corps, and the general body of the citizens of Dublin, passed strong resolutions in their several meetings, condemnatory of the conduct of their legislature—which, in its turn, passed a vote of censure on these proceedings, and addressed the Viceroy to prosecute their authors.

Irish interests neglected and sacrificed.

In the short session of the year 1781 the chief matters of debate were the obstructions given to our woollens and printed linens in the ports of Portugal, and the disastrous effects to our sugar-refineries of the measure of the preceding year. On this point several members of the mercantile body were examined at the bar of the commons,

and their evidence of the mischief done was strongly supported and urged by Grattan, Flood, and other patriots, but without any good result. The other matter, the dispute with Portugal, had its origin in a measure of the preceding session, which raised the duties on port wine; at the same time, however, that the previous advantage which that wine had possessed over those of France was proportionately preserved, by an equal increase upon the previously higher duties on the latter. In the two months of the session of 1782, the attention of the government was several times called to the dispute, but without success. Early in the ensuing session, however, viz., on the 6th of February, 1782, the House unanimously adopted an address to the Throne, calling the royal attention to the conduct of Portugal, and soliciting his Majesty's interference to procure an abatement of the grievance complained of. The royal answer, received March 5th, promised compliance with the request, but further than the giving of this promise nothing was done.

In another article of this appendix we treat of the glorious achievement in 1782, of legislative independence; at present it is not properly within our scope to speak of it, as we are dealing with the commercial relations of the countries alone.

We have now seen the full extent of the relaxations Really limited nature of obtained by Ireland up to 1782, in the rigid exclusion-code the "Free Trade" of which England had enacted against our manufactures. 1782. Ireland by them obtained liberty of trade with foreign countries and the dependencies of Great Britain, (excepting the East Indies,) but trade with Britain herself remained in nearly as unequal and unjust a condition as ever; she took from us little else but our inferior linens and our linen yarn, which we could have worked up more profitably at home; and the whole sum she spent upon our products was estimated not to exceed half-a-million at the utmost.

On the other hand, we took largely of her manufactures, and paid her about two millions of money for them. Some idea of the discrepancy of the customs' rates between the two countries may be formed from the fact, that English cloths were charged only with 6d. per yard on entering Ireland, whereas Irish were shut out of British ports by the enormous charge of £2 0s. 6d. per yard. In fact the "Free Trade" obtained in 1782, although an immense improvement on the previously existing state of things, was a most maimed and halting measure, and almost altogether justified the assurances that the British minister, Lord North, found himself compelled to give, in circular letters, to the manufacturing towns of England, to the effect that "nothing effectual had been granted to Ireland!"

Proof of deceits of the English ministers. Yet, neither these assurances, nor the facts that to a considerable extent bore them out, were successful in satisfying the griping spirt of the English manufacturers and traders. The concessions, "ineffectual" as they were thus represented to be, and limited most unfairly, as they undoubtedly were, yet looked too large in the eyes of selfish monopoly; and in three years from their date, Mr. Pitt, who had in 1782 declared them to be nothing more than what Ireland had the merest and purest right to demand, had to conciliate public opinion in England, by stigmatizing them as "ignorant and unsystematic," and such as required limitation.

Examinations of the propositions of 1785.

The occasion on which he did so, was in 1785, when bringing forward the celebrated "commercial propositions" of that year. Whether those propositions had any better foundations in "British generosity" than any of the preceding changes proposed, or effected, in the commercial relations of the two countries, will be seen on perusing the account we now proceed to give of them.

In Ireland they were, and have been up to the present day, usually styled, "Orde's propositions," from their

having been first brought forward by Mr. Orde, Secretary for Ireland. On the 17th of February, 1785, he introduced them to the Irish House of Commons, in the following shape:-

I.—Resolved—That it is the opinion of this committee, The "com-(committee of the whole House,) that it is highly important to mercial propositions the general interest of the British Empire, that the trade be- as originally tween Great Britain and Ireland be encouraged and extended proposed. as much as possible, and, for that purpose, that the intercourse and commerce be finally settled, and regulated on permanent and equitable principles, for the mutual benefit of both countries.

II.—That towards carrying into full effect so desirable a settlement, it is fit and proper that all articles not the growth or manufacture of Great Britain or Ireland, should be imported into each kingdom from the other reciprocally, under the same regulations, and at the same duties, if subject to duties, to which they are liable when imported directly from the place of their growth, product, or manufacture; and that all duties originally paid on the import into either country respectively, shall be fully drawn back on export to the other.

III.—That for the same purpose it is proper that no prohibition should exist in either country, against the importation, use, or sale of any article, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the other; and that the duty on import of every such article, if subject to duty in either country, should be precisely the same in the one as in the other, except where an addition may be necessary in either country, in consequence of an internal

duty on any such article of its own consumption.

IV.—That in all cases where the duties on articles of the growth, product, or manufacture of either country are different on the importation into the other, it would be expedient that they should be reduced in the kingdom where they are highest to the amount payable in the other; and that all such articles should be exportable from the kingdom into which they shall be imported, as free from such duty as the similar commodities, or home manufacture of the same kingdom.

V.—That for the same purpose it is also proper, that in all cases where either kingdoms shall charge articles of its own consumption with an internal duty on the manufacture, or a duty on the material, the same manufacture, when imported from

the other, may be charged with a further import-duty to the same amount as the internal duty on the manufacture, or to an amount adaquate to countervail the duty on the material; and shall be entitled to such drawbacks or bounties upon export, as may leave the same subject to no heavier burthens than the home-made manufacture; such further duty to continue so long as the internal consumption shall be charged with the duty or duties to balance which it shall be imposed, or until the manufacture coming from the other kingdom, shall be subjected there to an equal burthen, not drawn back or compensated on exportation.

VI.—That in order to give permanency to the settlement now intended to be established, it is necessary that no prohibition, or new additional duties, should be hereafter imposed in either kingdom, on import of any article of the growth, product, or manufacture of the other, save such additional duties as may be requisite to balance duties on internal consumption,

pursuant to the foregoing resolution.

VII.—That for the same purpose it is further necessary, that no prohibitions, or new and additional duties, should be hereafter imposed in either kingdom, on export of any article of native growth, product, or manufacture, to the other; except such as either kingdom may deem expedient, from time to time, upon corn, meal, malt, flour, and biscuit; and also except where there now exists any prohibition which is not reciprocal, or any duty not equal in both. In every such case the prohibition may be reciprocal, or the duties raised, so as to make them

equal.

VIII.—That for the same purpose it is necessary, that no bounties whatever be paid in either kingdom, on export of any article to the other, except such as relate to corn, meal, malt, flour, and biscuit; and such as are in the nature of drawbacks, or compensation for duties paid; and that no bounty be granted in this kingdom on export of any article imported from the British plantations, or any manufacture made of such article, unless in cases where a similar bounty is payable in Britain on export from thence; or where such bounty is merely in the nature of a drawback, or compensation for duties paid, over and above any duties paid thereon in Britain.

IX.—That it is expedient for the general benefit of the British empire, that the import of articles from foreign states should be regulated from time to time, in each kingdom, on such terms as may afford an effectual preference to the import

of similar articles of the growth, product, or manufacture of the other.

X .- That it is the opinion of this committee, that for the protection of trade, whatever sum the gross hereditary revenue of this kingdom (after deducting drawbacks, repayments, and bounties in the nature of drawbacks) shall produce annually, over and above the sum of £____ should be appropriated towards the naval force of the empire, in such manner as the parliament of this kingdom shall direct.

Mr. Secretary Orde introduced these propositions with Secretary Orde's many praises of the liberality of England. "The moment," Speech introducing said he, (page 119 of the 4th vol. Irish Parliamentary his propositions, 7th Register,) "is, I trust, come, when she will make her vic-Feb. 1785. tory over herself complete—when the reservation even of a just preference will be given up, and thereby every obstacle removed to the interchange of the commodities of the world......The same principle which induces Great Britain to sacrifice a partial interest to the great object, a generous reciprocity, will influence your estimation and acknowledgment of her unequivocal liberality, &c., &c."

He praised the second resolution, as enabling Ireland to Attempts at declasion. "supply the British market, on the same terms as the British merchants could." Of the third, he said-"that it secured the English market for Irish goods, linens, tabbinets, poplins, &c." And he added, "at this day how large a portion of what Britain takes from Ireland is Irish produce! and how small a portion of what Ireland takes from Britain is produced there!" But the part of his speech most to be noticed, was that concerning the tenth resolution, viz.—" Great Britain will thus generously sacrifice her monopolies; she gives up the hope of being the emporium of trade, at a time when her burdens press upon her; and she groans under the weight of a debt incurred by the general defence of the empire. I hope we will meet her with a like liberality of spirit. If, in consequence

of this adjustment, a great increase of revenue arise to Ireland, it will not be thought unreasonable to appropriate a part to the protection of the trade from which it arises; and by our contributing to the support of the naval force of the empire, Britain will still be enabled to afford protection."

Manner in which the plan was received.

Objections noted.

The Right Hon. William Brownlow, M.P. for Armagh County, rose next, and denounced the tenth proposition, as tending to make Ireland a tributary nation. plan was however received with something like favour by The Right Hon. Luke Gardiner, (afterwards Lord Mountjoy,) one who at that time held a prominent position in the patriotic ranks, went so far as to express some gratitude for the "liberal principles" that the English ministry seemed disposed to act upon. He made however a general objection, that these resolutions would go to prevent protecting duties, which he considered necessary to the manufacturers of Ireland, to balance England's advantages of "long established trade, large capitals, and extensive credit." And he concluded by calling attention to the failure of reciprocity as regarded mutual interchange of the raw material of each other's staple, viz.—linen yarn for Ireland, and wool for England; the latter being strictly guarded against export from England, while Irish linen varn was to go free into that country.

Mr. Foster, Chancellor of the Exchequer, (afterwards, and until the Union, Speaker of the Irish House of Commons—and subsequently an official in the united parliament, until raised to the peerage by the title of Lord Oriel,) gave no other answer to these objections, than that our linen manufacture was of the greatest importance to us; and would now be secure of the English market.

and evaded.

Adjournment to 11th

The matter was then adjourned to Friday, the 11th of Feb. February, on which day—

Petitions were presented against the propositions—one Petitions from the Dublin Chamber of Commerce, to much the same effect as Mr. Gardiner's objections-and a similar one from the woollen, silk, cotton, and mixed goods manufacturers of Dublin.

Mr. Flood and others complained of being hurried into consideration of the matter.

He complained that the people of Ireland had asked for Flood begins his opprotection; and the answer was the 4th proposition, which position. was to do away with all protection; -and insisted on the

necessity of preserving our home-market.

With much debate, but no division, the propositions were attempt to passed, until the 7th, when Mr. Gardiner moved that secure real reciprocity. neither country should prohibit export of the raw material of its staple. He said "Irish woollen yarn was best for the weft-and English for the warp. Now the English get our yarn, of which they make their weft-but send none of theirs to us to make our warp-which surely was no reciprocity."

The Committee divided—

Failure.

For the amendment, For the original resolution, 178

It was then proposed that the following should be the 10th resolution:-

That it is essential to the commercial interest of this country Change at to prevent, as much as possible, an accumulation of national the end of debt; and that therefore it is highly expedient that the annual tions made with the revenues of this kingdom should be made equal to its annual concurrence expenses.

who defends

And that the 11th should be,-" That for the better pro-them. tection of trade, whatever sum the gross hereditary revenue of this kingdom (after deducting all drawbacks, repayments, or bounties in the nature of drawbacks) shall produce over and above the sum of £656,000 in each year in peace, wherein the annual revenue shall equal the annual expense; and in each year of war, without regard to such equality; should be appropriated towards the support of the naval force of the empire, in such manner as the parliament of this kingdom shall direct.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer stated, that in these he had the advice and assistance of Mr. Grattan.

It was objected, that the first of these made no provision for reduction of expenditure—but for increased taxa-And that the second was, in fact, a subsidy to England.

Allusion to the "Surplus," ques-tion of 1753.

Mr. Grattan defended them on the grounds that "by making the surplus not applicable to the general expenditure till all expenses were paid, both British and Irish ministers would be interested in Irish economy, and the Irish parliament would have the control." This latter provision decided, he said, "the great question of 1753." (which was a controversy as to whether the Irish parliament had, or had not, the power of disposing of surplus revenue, after clearing off the debt-an occurrence that took place in that year.)

Resolutions passed at an advanced hour in the morning, in Mr. Flood's absence.

The "propositions," or resolutions were then passed.

On Monday, February 14, Mr. Flood re-opened the subject, commencing by stating he had been obliged by illness to leave the House, at a comparatively early period of the previous discussion, and had gone with the impression that the promise of Mr. Foster to "ameliorate" the concluding resolution, would have been otherwise carried out than it was.

He complains thereand accuses of fraud.

Ireland ought to have a navy of her own.

He accused Foster of seeking unfairly to create the of, March 14, "casus" of the 11th resolution, by not including in the Government deductions excepted in it, the corn-bounty, and the charges of management of the revenue. He contended that Ireland ought not thus to give away her money for ever to the navy of the empire, but, if need were, to create and support a navy of her own; and showed what a bad precedent she had, in the provision she had been called upon, since 1769, to make for the army of the empire, which

had caused her debt ever since to accumulate. He said that a part of the hereditary revenue was already appropriated to a sea-guard—that a time when England herself was in every way retrenching, was no time for us, instead to be made of reducing our heavy military establishment, to add to our more debt. expenses by this naval contribution, and to her debt also, and an abas she could not borrow all she would want at home, but also moves amendment. should do so in England, and so create absentee debt, the interest being, of course, paid and spent out of the country. He concluded by moving, "That an immediate and effectual retrenchment is necessary." An amendment to defer (and thereby, of course, defeat) his motion was then moved by Mr. Mason, (M.P. for the borough of St. Canice, or Irishtown, county Kilkenny.)

Division for the amendment, 131 For Mr. Flood's motion, ... 43

Defeated.

No sufficient answer appears to have been given-nor, General remarks on indeed, could be given, to Mr. Flood's eloquent and most the whole cogent arguments. The arrangement then, as proposed in February, 1785, stands charged with the following injustices towards Ireland :-

First, That by resolution 4 (and others), she was to de-Its binding Ireland prive herself at once, and for ever, of all protection against any protection the tremendous rivalry of the long-established manufactores. tures of England, supported as they were by an immensely superior capital, and of course a system of long credits.

The soundness, or otherwise, of a "protection-policy" has nothing to do with the question here. Ireland should not have been called upon to give up her freedom of action with regard to it*, when Great Britain retained her power

^{*} We are not here calling in question the free-trade doctrine, that a country ought to make its renunciation of "protections," without reference to what other countries may retain of them,—but are shewing the hollowness of the pretence on the part of England, of an equality of concession.

in that respect. There was but an illusory pretence of reciprocity; as article 5 enabled England to add the the amounts of her own excise duties, as additional upon import duties on Irish goods entering her ports; and so render those duties really much heavier than the Irish duties on imports from England.

Also perfect reciprocity not established, England being favoured as

Second, That by resolution 6, England was to be enabled to supply herself at her own terms with our linen yarn, that is, the material of our staple manufacture,—while resolution to her wool. 7, allowed the continuance of her prohibition of export to us of her wool, the material of her staple manufacture, and an article which we much desired to have.

Against profitable treaty with foreigners.

Third, That we should (by resolution 9) pledge ourselves to give English goods a preference over foreign, no matter how much more advantageous to us to deal with the foreigner. England, to be sure, was to be similarly bound: but our staple manufacture, that of linen, had a powerful rival in the Scotch linen in her market, and we had nothing else of consequence which she would take.

To heavy increase of taxation, and to a tribute.

Fourth, That the resolution No. 10, (as last proposed and carried,) went to sanction the scarcely concealed purpose of the minister to increase our burthens, without any reference to the propriety of reducing our expenses.

Fifth, That the final resolution, No. 11, violated all constitutional precedent, by pledging the country, without limitation of time, to pay a certain fixed amount of money to England, upon the occurrence of a contingency, the great likelihood of which was enhanced by the fraudulent working of the clause providing for it.

The proviso giving the Irish parliament control over the details of the disposition of the grant was a mockery, when they were to preclude themselves from meddling with its general application.

But these injustices did not appear to the parliament of England to be sufficient.

Mr. Pitt, in submitting the resolutions to the British English parparliament for their adoption, (which he did on the 22nd however not satisfied even with these griev-move from the minds of his hearers the impression which areas to Ireland. his deputy in Ireland (Mr. Orde) had laboured to make upon the Irish parliament; viz., that the contemplated pitt contraarrangement was a pure benefit to Ireland, out of the dicting Orde. liberality of England.

In the first place, he sought to have it considered that Ireland had required this arrangement. "What has been done" (said he, alluding to the concessions of 1780-2) "was still viewed by the Irish people as insufficient, and clamours were excited, and suggestions published in Dublin and elsewhere, of putting duties on English produce and manufactures, under the name of protecting duties."

This last branch of the sentence discloses at once and the real design of the thoroughly the real reason why the proposed arrangement the sentence discloses at once and the real design of the real design of the sentence discloses at once and the real design of the real design of the real design of the real design of the sentence discloses at once and the real design of th was brought forward by the British ministry. They could through the clumsiness not show one petition to prove that Ireland wished for it. device, In fact and truth the secret of the matter was, the desire to prevent the Irish from giving their own manufactures some protection against the crushing rivalry of England.

Compelled by the somewhat indiscreet anxiety of the representatives of the manufacturing interests of England, to speak plainer than exactly consisted with the language of Mr. Orde in Ireland, he asked-

What was likely to be the extent of this boon to Ireland? Was it likely she would become the mart of the empire? He could not believe it ever would be the case...........It was not probable that Ireland ever could furnish England with colonial produce in any great degree......As to the equalization of the duties on mutual intercourse, a country like Ireland, not cataxes at home, still our manufactures had always been able to triumph over the Irish in their own markets, paying the low duties there on import, and also the charges Would Ireland's cheap labour enable her to undersell us? Manufacturers thought otherwise; there were great obstacles to the planting of any manufacture. It would require time for arts and capital, which could not increase without the demand; and in an established manufacture improvement was so rapid as to bid defiance to rivalship. In some of our manufactures too, there were natural and insurmountable obstacles to their competition. In the woollens, for instance, by confining the raw material to this country, the manufacture was confined also.

Mr. Fox made the following significant remark on this occasion :

Fox's eloquent denunciation of the pretences put

It had struck him as a singular instance of ingenuity, that in opening the outlines of the plan, the right honourable gentleman (Mr. Pitt) had done away with a good deal of what had been said upon the subject in another speech, to another assembly. Indeed his (Mr. Pitt's) speech had been little else than an answer to that of Mr. Secretary Orde, in the Irish House of Commons...... It was curious to observe how differently the minister in Ireland, and the minister in England, had recommended the same propositions to two different parliaments. In Ireland they had been stated as highly advantageous to that country-putting it on the footing of Great Britain, and rendering it an emporium of trade, and the source and supply of the British markets. In England and in that House they were told that the propositions were such as this country (England) might gladly accede to. Why? 'Because it gives Ireland nothing but what it had before-because Ireland cannot rival you-because Ireland is poor and feeble; and because Ireland must remain so, if not for ever, at least for a considerable length of time.'

Time for petitions, &c. allowed.

The propositions brought on May, 1785.

It was agreed upon, that time should be given for the presentation of petitions respecting these resolutions, hereing of counsel at the bar of the house on the subject, &c. &c.; in consequence of this, it was not till Thursday, 7th again in the May, 1785, that the propositions were debated, with a view English par-liament 7th to definite adoption.

In moving them, Mr. Pitt took occasion to state, as follows, the then position of Ireland:-

Ireland could, at this moment, trade with unlimited freedom Pitt exposes to every foreign state in Europe, supply them with her own produce and manufacture, and carry home theirs in return. She Ireland. She had free was also at liberty to supply the British colonies in the West foreign Indies, and, by a direct trade homeward, furnish herself with trade and the West India goods. But this was not all, she could also, trade, and could carry at this moment, supply the British market, by a direct trade to colonial Britain, with the produce of the British Islands. Relative to goods direct West-India commodities, the only question now was, that the Britain. Irish should be permitted to bring into England, circuitously through Ireland, those goods which they were at present at full liberty to import into this country direct from the West Indies.

The opposition to this was from the West India planters, who feared that foreign sugars would be imported under cover of it.

Mr. Pitt said that Ireland "had no better right to complain Her excluof exclusion from the East India trade, than any one of our sion from the East outports. He would, however, allow her this, that 'the East Indies. India Company should be empowered to take in such part of their outward bound cargo as they might find convenient, in Proposed the ports of Ireland, and also to import directly from the East boon in this Indies into Ireland, whatever they might think proper.'"

He condemned the petitions against this plan, saying, that "the greater part of them had been drawn up without due attention to the subject......They seemed (the petitioners) not to know that the liberties and privileges to Ireland, of which they complained, and her rivalry in foreign markets, subsisted by the laws already in existence."

He then went on to combat the doctrine "that Ireland, from Pitt further the cheapness of labour, must necessarily undersell the English Ireland manufacturer......It did not depend on that sort of work could not which was required for the most rough and rude occupations of land. agriculture, whether a nation was to flourish in manufacture or not...... The fears of the manufacturers were extremely far-fetched and ill-founded...... They had declared them-

States the ton import from England, 101 per cent., notwithstanding which the Englishman beat the Irish cotton manufacturer.

selves to be afraid that the Irish should be able to draw over all their workmen, all their trade and capital, and undersell them in their own markets by at least 13 per cent. Now he desired the committee to attend to that single subject. then Irish duty on cot- cotton trade was to enter England by this plan, at £10 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. duty, and yet it was said they were to undersell the English cotton manufacturer by 13 per cent.! Besides this, England had hitherto imported into Ireland at a duty of £10½ per These three sums together would make £34 per cent.; therefore if these petitions deserved credit, they had, at that disadvantage, engrossed almost exclusively the Irish market, in which their dealings had increased and flourished to an extent hardly to be equalled by any other branch of trade known—a thing perfectly beyond the reach of belief............ In another branch there was the same exaggerated representation by Mr. Wedgewood, the earthenware manufacturer, who had given a very copious testimony at the bar, in the most collected and deliberate manner, and yet the House could learn nothing more from him than his having wished to engross every market to which he had ever thought of sending his wares; and, by the by, he did not know well how to send them to Ireland for fear of damage by breakage and other losses. At all risk of credibility and consistency, he sought to find nothing in these propositions but ruin to his manufacture."

Ridicules the jealousy and fears of the British manufacturers, especi-ally as Ireland was a poor country. Confesses that the union with Scotland benefitted the latter less than England, who, therefore, would "not be averse to repeat the experiment," (viz., with Ireland.)
The "TRI-BUTE" said

After ridiculing the idea of comparing a poor with a rich country, and showing that notwithstanding the great advantages predicted to Scotland from her union with England, the latter had been "more benefitted by it," and that the result of that union "had been such as not to make England averse to a repetition of the experiment, he proceeded to open

That part of the plan which was entirely and exclusively favourable to this country (England), and which was to be the gratuity given by Ireland for whatever benefit she was to derive, and the compensation to England for whatever advantage she might give up... This compensation was the surplus of the Irish hereditary revenue, over and above £654,000 This would bear an exact proportion to the for her own uses. by him to be benefit she was to reap from the new arrangements; her hereditary revenue was by customs on almost every thing imported, a fair purchase by by excise on the most general articles of consumption, and by a Ircland of a house-tax, levied on the number of hearths in each....... The benefit. committee would see, therefore, that this revenue would increase necessarily as soon as the new arrangement had effect, and in exact proportion to that effect, every article of which it was composed being so closely connected with commerce, wealth, and population. It was his idea that the supply should be taken in provisions and stores.

He concluded with submitting an "amended" and ex- Increase of the number tended list of "propositions," increasing the number greatly, of the propositions, and and materially altering and adding to the substance. Mr. their stringency. Fox, speaking to the question a little later, remarked severely upon the high-handed manner in which the first Fox asks the justificalist had been sought to be pressed upon the House, and tion of so praised for their perfection; whereas now, the minister had change, if been forced practically to admit their great faultiness—

plan were all it had been that by them, as they first stood, England would have lost pretended, the monopoly of the East India trade, hazarded the revenue arising from spirituous liquors—no distinction having been made between native and foreign spirits—nor any protection provided against the latter. That they would have sacrificed the navigation laws, and thereby given up "the great source of commercial opulence, the prime origin of and shews his own jea-our maritime strength," in trust to Ireland, leaving Eng-lous of ire-land. lish interests totally dependent on her policy and her bounty. That a door would be opened to most extensive smuggling-no bonds, cockets, &c. &c., being required. And that Ireland having the power of giving bounties, or allowing drawbacks on goods exported to the colonies, might beat England in the colonial market, while she could also injure the colonies, by letting in foreign colonial goods cheap.

He continued thus :-

Inadvertent Ireland.

I need not state to the committee a fact so universally known. hardship to as that the produce of our colonies is dearer than that of the foreign islands. Nevertheless, we have given them the homemarket, on account of the natural interest we have in them, and we must continue to do so. But Ireland has no such obligation; on the contrary, her interest would as forcibly lead her to the foreign colonies.

He supports gency.

Aware of this fact with regard to Ireland, and in order the new propositions be- to prevent her from thus consulting her own interest, Mr. cause of their strin- Fox supported the new form of the "propositions."

Mr. Pitt succeeded in carrying his resolutions, and sending them to the Lords. After some amendments there, and subsequent amendments, unnecessary to be detailed, in the Commons on return, both houses finally agreed to, and passed them in the following shape:-

The propositions as they finally passed in England.

I.—That it is highly important to the interests of both countries, that the commerce between Great Britain and Ireland should be finally regulated on permanent and equitable principles, for the mutual benefit of both countries.

II .- That a full participation of commercial advantages should be permanently secured to Ireland, whenever a provision equally permanent and secure, shall be made by the parliament of that kingdom, towards defraying, in proportion to its growing prosperity, the necessary expenses in time of peace, of protecting the trade and general interests of the empire.

III .- That towards carrying into full effect so desirable a settlement, it is fit and proper that all articles, not the growth or manufacture of Great Britain or Ireland, except those of the growth, produce, or manufacture of any of the countries beyond the Cape of Good Hope, to the Streights of Magellan, should be imported into each kingdom from the other reciprocally, under the same regulations, and at the same duties (if subject to duties) to which they would be liable, when imported directly from the country or place from whence the same may have been imported into Great Britain or Ireland respectively, as the case may be; and that all duties originally paid on importation into either country respectively, except on arrack and foreign brandy, and on rum, and all sorts of strong waters not imported from the British colonies in the West Indies, shall be fully drawn back on exportation to the other. But, nevertheless, that the duties shall continue to be protected and guarded, as at present, by withholding the drawback, until a certificate from the proper officers of the revenue, in the kindom to which the export may be made, shall be returned and compared with the

entry outwards.

IV.—That it is highly important to the general interests of the British empire, that the laws for regulating trade and navigation, should be the same in Great Britain and Ireland; and, therefore, that it is essential towards carrying into effect the present settlement, that all laws which have been made, or shall be made in Great Britain, for securing exclusive privileges to the ships and mariners of Great Britain, Ireland, and the British colonies and plantations, and for regulating and restraining the trade of the British colonies and plantations, (such laws imposing the same restraints, and conferring the same benefits on the subjects of both kingdoms,) should be in force in Ireland, by laws to be passed by the parliament of that kingdom, for the same time, and in the same manner, as in Great Britain.

V.—That it is further essential to this settlement, that all goods and commodities of the growth, produce, or manufacture of British or foreign colonies in America or the West Indies, and the British or foreign settlements on the coast of Africa, imported into Ireland, should, on importation, be subject to the same duties and regulations, as the like goods are, or from time to time shall be subject to, upon importation into Great Britain; or if prohibited from being imported into Great Britain, shall in like manner be prohibited from being imported into Ireland.

VI.—That in order to prevent illicit practices, injurious to the revenue and commerce of both kingdoms, it is expedient that all goods, whether of the growth, produce, or manufacture of Great Britain or Ireland, or of any foreign country, which shall be hereafter imported into Great Britain from Ireland, or into Ireland from Great Britain, should be put, by laws to be passed in the parliament of the two kingdoms, under the same regulations with respect to bonds, cockets, and other instruments, to which the like goods are now subject in passing from one port of Great Britain to another.

VII.—That for the like purpose it is also expedient, that when any goods, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the British West India islands, or any other of the British colonies or plantations, shall be shipped from Ireland for Great Britain.

they should be accompanied with such original certificates of the revenue officers of the said colonies, as shall be required by the law, on importation into Great Britain; and that when the whole quantity included in one certificate, shall not be shipped at any one time, the original certificate, properly indorsed as to quantity, should be sent with the first parcel; and to identify the remainder, if shipped at any future period, new certificates should be granted by the principal officers of the ports in Ireland, extracted from a register of the original document, specifying the quantities before shipped, from thence, by what vessels, and to what ports.

VIII.—That it is essential for carrying into effect the present settlement, that all goods exported from Ireland to the British colonies in the West Indies, or in America, or to the British settlements on the coast of Africa, should from time to time be made liable to such duties and drawbacks, and put under such regulations as may be necessary, in order that the same may not be exported with less incumbrance of duties or imposition than the like goods shall be burthened with when exported from

Great Britain.

IX.—That it is essential to the general commercial interests of the empire, that so long as the parliament of this kingdom shall think it advisable, that the commerce to the countries beyond the Cape of Good Hope shall be carried on solely by an exclusive company, having liberty to import into the port of London only, no goods of the growth, produce, or manufacture of any countries beyond the Cape of Good Hope, should be importable into Ireland from any foreign country, or from any settlement in the East Indies belonging to any such foreign country; and that no goods of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the said countries should be allowed to be imported into Ireland but through Great Britain; and it shall be lawful to export such goods of the growth, produce, or manufacture of any of the countries beyond the Cape of Good Hope to the Streights of Magellan, from Great Britain to Ireland, with the same duties retained thereon as are now retained on their being exported to that kingdom; but that an account shall be kept of the duties retained, and the net drawback on the said goods imported to Ireland; and the amount thereof shall be remitted by the receiver-general of his Majesty's customs in Great Britain to the proper officers of the revenue in Ireland, to be placed to the account of his Majesty's revenue there, subject to the disposal of the parliament of that kingdom; and that whenever the commerce to the said countries shall cease to be carried on by an exclusive company, in the goods of the produce of countries beyond the Cape of Good Hope to the Streights of Magellan, the goods should be importable into Ireland from countries from which they may be importable into Great Britain, and no other; and that no vessel should be cleared out from Ireland, for any part of the countries from the Cape of Good Hope to the Streights of Magellan, but such as shall be freighted in Ireland by the said exclusive company, and shall have sailed from the port of London; and that the ships going from Great Britain to any of the said countries beyond the Cape of Good Hope, should not be restrained from touching at any of the ports in Ireland, and taking on board there any of the goods of the

growth, produce, or manufacture of that kingdom.

X.—That no prohibition should exist in either country, against the importation, use, or sale of any article, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the other, except such as either kingdom may judge expedient, from time to time, upon corn, meal, malt, flour, and biscuits; and except such qualified prohibitions, at present contained in any act of the British or Irish parliaments, as do not absolutely prevent the importation of goods, or manufactures, or materials of manufactures, but only regulate the weight, the size, the packages, or other particular circumstances, or prescribe the build or country, and dimensions of the ship importing the same; and also, except on arms, ammunition, gunpowder, and other utensils of war, importable only by virtue of his Majesty's license; and that the duty on the importation of every such article (if subject to duty in either country) should be precisely the same in one country as in the other, except where an addition may be necessary in either country, in consequence of internal duty on any such article of its own consumption, or in consequence of internal bounties in the country where such article is grown, produced, or manufactured, and except such duties as either kingdom may judge expedient, from time to time, upon corn, meal, flour, malt, and biscuits.

XI.—That in all cases where the duties on articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of either country, are different on the importation into the other, it is expedient that they be reduced in the kingdom where they are the highest, to an amount not exceeding the amount payable in the other; so that the same shall not be less than ten and a half per cent. where any article was charged with a duty on importation into

Ireland, of ten and a half per cent. or upwards, previous to the 17th day of May, 1782; and that all such articles should be exportable from the kingdom into which they shall be imported, as free from duty as the similar commodities or

home manufactures of the same kingdom.

XII.—That it is also proper, that in all cases where the articles of the consumption of either kingdom shall be charged with an internal duty on the manufacture, the said manufacture, when imported from the other, may be charged with a further duty on importation, adequate to countervail the internal duty on the manufacture, as far as relates to the duties now charged thereon; such further duty to continue so long only as the internal consumption shall be charged with the duty or duties, to balance which it shall be imposed; and that, where there is a duty on the importation of the raw material of any manufacture in one kingdom greater than the like duty on raw materials in the other, such manufacture may, on its importation into the other kingdom, be charged with such a countervailing duty, as may be sufficient to subject the same, so imported, to burdens adequate to those which the manufacture composed of the like raw material is subject to, in consequence of duties on the importation of such material in the kingdom into which such manufacture is so imported; and the said manufacture so imported, shall be entitled to such drawbacks or bounties on exportation, as may leave the same subject to no heavier burden than the home-made manufacture.

XIII.—That in order to give permanency to the settlement now intended to be established, it is necessary that no new or additional duties should be hereafter imposed in either kingdom on the importation of any article of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the other, except such additional duties as may be requisite to balance the duties on internal consumption, pursuant to the foregoing resolution, or in consequence of bounties remaining on such articles when exported from the other kingdom.

XIV.—That for the same purpose it is necessary further, that no prohibition, or new or additional duties, shall be hereafter imposed in either kingdom, on the exportation of any article of native growth, produce, or manufacture, from one kingdom to the other, except such as either kingdom may deem expedient from time to time, upon corn, meal, malt, flour, and

biscuits.

XV.—That for the same purpose it is necessary, that no

bounties whatever should be paid or payable in either kingdom, on the exportation of any article to the other, except such as relate to corn, meal, flour, and biscuits. And except also the bounties at present given by Great Britain on beer and spirits distilled from corn, and such as are in the nature of drawbacks, or compensations for duties paid. that no bounty should be payable on the exportation of any article to any British colonies or plantations, or to the British settlements on the coast of Africa, or British settlements in the East Indies, or any manufacture made of such article, unless in cases where a similar bounty is payable in Great Britain on exportation from thence, or where such bounty is merely in the nature of a drawback or compensation of or for duties paid over and above any duties paid thereon in Great Britain; and where any internal bounty shall be given in either kingdom, on any goods manufactured therein, and shall remain on such goods when exported, a countervailing duty adequate thereto may be laid upon the importation of the said goods into the other

XVI.—That it is expedient for the general benefit of the British empire, that the importation of articles from foreign countries should be regulated from time to time in each kingdom, on such terms as may effectually favor the importation of similar articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the other, except in the cases of materials of manufactures, which are or hereafter may be allowed to be imported from foreign countries duty free; and that in all cases where any articles are, or may be, subject to higher duties on importation into this kingdom from the countries belonging to any of the States of North America, than the like goods are or may be subject to when imported as the growth, produce, or manufacture of the British colonies and plantations, or as the produce of fisheries carried on by British subjects, such articles shall be subject to the same duties on importation into Ireland, from the countries belonging to any of the States of North America, as the same are or may be subject to on importation from the

said countries into this kingdom.

2

XVII.—That it is expedient that measures should be taken to prevent disputes touching the exercise of the right of the inhabitants of each kingdom to fish on the coast of any part of the British dominions.

XVIII.—That is expedient that such privileges of printing and vending books, as are or may be legally possessed within

Great Britain, under the grant of the Crown or otherwise, and the copyrights of the authors and booksellers of Great Britain, should continue to be protected in the manner they are at present by the laws of Great Britain; and that it is just that measures should be taken by the parliament of Ireland, for giving the like protection to the copyrights of the authors and booksellers of that kingdom.

XIX.—That it is expedient that regulations should be adopted with respect to patents to be hereafter granted, for the encouragement of new inventions, so that the rights, privileges, and restrictions thereon granted and contained, shall be of equal duration and force throughout Great Britain

and Ireland.

XX.—That the appropriation of whatever sum the gross hereditary revenue of the kingdom of Ireland (the due collection thereof being secured by permanent provisions) shall produce, after deducting all drawbacks, repayments, or bounties granted in the nature of drawbacks, over and above the sum of £656,000 in each year, towards the support of the naval force of the empire, to be applied in such manner as the parliament of Ireland shall direct, by an act to be passed for that purpose, will be a satisfactory provision, proportioned to the growing prosperity of that kingdom, towards defraying, in time of peace, the necessary expenses of protecting the trade and general interests of the empire.

Mr. Pitt moved an address to the throne relative to these resolutions.

Lord Beauchamp opposes the propositions. Lord Beauchamp opposed, on the ground of the hurry and insufficiency of the plan. He denied that Ireland was impatient for it:—

Shows how fair the conduct of Ireland had been,

on sugar arose from the different principles on which the drawback of our last duty was calculated, of which the Irish parliament made the application, and fixed their port-duty accordingly...... In the case of woollens, the Irish parliament had recently disclaimed the principle; and indeed the whole history of their rates is a proof that they have carried their commercial preference for Great Britain to as great a length as one country can expect from another...... No reciprocity in these arrangements. British prohibitions on wool and fuller's earth perpetuated, while Irish bay yarn, linen yarn, and and the unfair characraw hides secured to the British market for ever. In beer and ter of these spirits bounties are reserved, to give a decided superiority ments to against Ireland. He further observed that the 11th and 12th her. propositions would also militate against her, and that the coast regulations of "bonds" and "cockets" would embarrass and tend to restrict that trade, which the Irish parliament desired England's to extend. That the 7th inconvenienced Ireland only, and as encourage-to the linen trade, the plan gave "no new security." England's Irish linen previous policy was founded on the wisest views of the subject fact, a bene-fact, a benefor her own interest. By suffering Irish linens to come in free, fitto herself. she secured the best materials for her own printing trade; and by granting a bounty on their export, she insured to the London factors the commission and other advantages of sending them to every part of the world.

Mr. Eden, professing to speak "as one of the agents for Mr. Eden states the the British manufacturers, and for the landed interests, and nature of stock-holders of England," thus described the general na-plan. ture of the plan:

Great Britain was to give: First, the carriage from Ireland to this kingdom, of colonial produce, after landing in Ireland. Second, an access to the British markets. Third, a national compact not to raise the duties on Irish linens.

It must be clear to the reader that the first of these boons to Ireland was a mockery. England having the power to import direct from her colonies, would not, of course, prefer to pay an increased price on their commodities coming through Ireland.

As to the second boon, Ireland was to compensate for it, by thoroughly opening her market to England, then and for ever.

That the third was but the continuance of a matter of advantage to England herself, we have seen confessed in Lord Beauchamp's words already quoted.

So much for the "boons to Ireland." In return England, according to Mr. Eden, was to obtain:—

1—A control and superintending power of legislation in matters of trade and commerce.

2.—Acquiescence of Ireland in the perpetual duration of the

East and West Indian monopolies.

3.—A confirmation in British prohibitions of exports, without the power of making them reciprocal. To which (added Mr. Eden, with astonishing candour) perhaps I ought to add, the contribution in proportion to the increasing opulence of Ireland.

Fox declares its injustice to Ireland. We shall take leave of the English discussion, with the opinion of Mr. Fox expressed in the same debate, that by this plan, "Ireland would lose her constitution, and again become a dependent subordinate hingdom."

The English Lords and Commons having agreed to the propositions in the middle of July, they were submitted to the Irish parliament in their altered shape, upon the 12th of August.

The resolutions being returned to Ireland, are vigorously opposed by Flood, Grattan, &c. &c.

Mr. Flood sought to anticipate them, upon the 2nd of August, by a resolution—"That we will maintain, in full and undiminished force, the legislative supremacy of the parliament of Ireland, to legislate for Ireland in all cases—internally, commercially, and externally."

Mr. Grattan and he condemned in most forcible terms the English resolutions; and said they thought no man would have ventured to think of bringing such resolutions before the Irish parliament.

Mr. Flood's motion was evaded by the minister (Mr.

Orde) on a point of form; but was again brought forward by him, in nearly the same words, on the 11th of August, to which day the house had adjourned. After some further strong condemnation of the English resolutions by him and Mr. Grattan, it was agreed that the motion should be adjourned, until Mr. Orde should have the opportunity which he contemplated having the succeeding day, of endeavouring to shew the house that he did not wish to compromise the legislative independence of Ireland.

He, accordingly, made this attempt next day; but the pretexts he put forward for the purpose were too shallow to deceive for a moment, and such as it were a waste of time to record.

Mr. Grattan eloquently and indignantly denounced the attempt; and went into details to shew the various injustices of the whole scheme.

The proofs must be so evident to the candid reader, on the face of the propositions themselves, and, indeed, in the remarks we have before given of Mr. Eden, the advocate in the English parliament of the English interests which considered themselves imperilled even by the shadow of benefit to Ireland, that it is unnecessary to go into them.

One sentence of Mr. Grattan's so well expresses the whole history of our commercial relations with Great Britain, that we quote it, although limited to space:

Whence the restrictions on Irish trade and commerce? Grattan on Whence the old misconstruction of the act of navigation? the commercial relations of the trade and navigation of another, and of instituting, under three countries. the idea of a general protectress, a proud domination; which sacrifices the interests of the whole to the ambition of a part, and arms the little passions of the monopolist with the sovereign potency of an imperial parliament. For great nations, when cursed with unnatural sway, follow but their nature when they invade; and human wisdom has not better provided for human safety than by limiting the principles of human power.

A sentence that dropped from a supporter of Mr. Orde, Mr. Mason, M. P. for St. Canice, deserves also to be recorded, for obvious reasons:

Allusion to a Union. The house should recollect they were not going to form an indissoluble contract, like the treaty of union between England and Scotland; for the moment the act of union passed, the parliament of Scotland was annihilated, or rather merged in that of great Britain; and if the articles of union had proved highly oppressive to the people of Scotland, they were left without resource; except what they should find in the moderation of the British parliament, (!) or the hazards of a civil war!

Having giving these, some extracts from the admirable speech of Flood cannot be omitted.

Flood's final dennnciation of the "propositions."

I do not wonder at all that this system should end in an open attack upon the rights of Ireland in commerce and constitution—because in its origin it appeared to me to be a covered attack on both.

The King's speech declared that this system was only to adjust matters not before adjusted—yet the very second of the original ten propositions, in contradiction to this, went only to objects that had been before adjusted in 1780 and 1782—name-

ly, foreign trade and British colonial trade.

As to Ireland's not having paid for the transaction of 1780, I say the argument would be a sordid one, were it founded on fact

-which it is not. The sentiment of the British parliament in 1780, was a wiser and more statesmanlike conception. It was, that the unshaken loyalty of Ireland entitled her to those advantages; and surely that is a price above all prices. But Ireland paid for it in two ways beside; and in each of them more than the value of the object. Firstly, she gave to the British colonies a monopoly of her consumption in those articles in which she then obtained that free trade. Now I say universally, that any nation pays too dear for one market, when she gives up all other markets for one. And particularly, that the nation pays too dearly for the sugar market of the British colonies, who gives up all other sugar markets for the British, which is neither the best nor the cheapest. Secondly, I add, that Ireland paid in taxes for the direct trade more than it was worth; and I prove it thus: £10 per cent. is a good profit in general on trade, and no trade can afford to pay the whole, nor the greater part of its clear profit in tax. To apply this: - we paid for that direct trade an estimated sum of tax to the amount of above £100,000 per annum. Now this would be the whole clear profit, at £10 per cent. of £2,000,000 worth of trade. Could the whole clear profit be afforded in tax? or can the whole increase of traffic, by the direct trade, amount in any series of years to anything like the enormous sum of two millions? Most certainly not.

The boldest stroke was, in the very moment Ireland was soliciting higher duties on import, in order to give protection to her manufactures, to compel her to propose in the 4th of the original ten resolutions, that she should never have such protecting resolutions. The 4th does this by requiring that the lowest existing duties should, viz.—the Irish, shall, hereafter, be the port-duties for both kingdoms. Now experience proved these too low to protect Ireland, and therefore she had prayed to have them raised, but the 4th proposition made her negative her own application. Notwithstanding this a fear began to be entertained in England, that by some possibility these low duties might suffer some Irish manufacture to escape into the British market. Therefore an expedient was adopted, at the latter end of the 3rd proposition, by which Britain should have higher protecting duties, without appearing to mean it. This was by 'countervailing duties,' that is to say, that the port-duties, though too low for the protection of Ireland, should be equal; but that the country that had the highest internal duties on consumption, might add to the port-duty a countervailing duty, in proportion to its internal imports, whereby the before equal duties would become unequal. Now we have only to ask, which of these kingdoms now has, and which of them, as richer, must always be able to have, the highest internal duties on consumption ?-Undoubtedly Britain. What follows? That Ireland was made in the countervailing principle to propose, that Britain should have higher duties against Irish imports, than Ireland against British imports. Certainly the weaker country required more protection than the stronger, though she would be content with a protection equal to what Britain had long enjoyed, and by the long enjoyment of which Britain had gained such advantageous ground as Ireland could never recover, nor Britain ever lose.

The Attorney-General, Right Hon. John Scott, argued that these resolutions would confirm to Ireland the benefits she now held only at England's pleasure, under the 20th Geo. III., chap. 10. (passed in 1780, and known by the title of the Act of Free Trade.)

Last fallacy, as to these

Mr. Ogilvie, M.P. for Ballyshannon, said that this was not propositions correct, but had been advanced by the Attorney-General, because he knew that the bill now introduced by the British miland, upset. nister, clashed with the act of 1780, and could not be passed while the latter continued in force, and that he had, of consequence, seen the necessity of representing this act as a favour granted by Great Britain, held at her discretion, and revocable at her pleasure. He (Mr. Ogilvie) positively denied that it was so revocable, for in it there was enacted "that the importation and exportation allowed by this act, shall have continuance so long, and in such respective cases only, as the goods or any of them, &c., shall be liable by some act or acts of parliament, to be made in the kingdom of Ireland, to equal duties and drawbacks, and shall be made subject to the same securities, regulations, and restrictions, as the like goods, &c., exported from, or imported into Great Britain, from the British colonies in the West Indies, America, and Africa." Thus it was for Ireland to terminate the act, by not performing the conditions annexed to the grant of its advantages. He was ready, however, to admit with the Chancellor of he Exchequer, (Mr. Foster,) that the principle of the present bill was the same as that of the 20th Geo. III. chap. 10. But that act expressly provided against the

extending of the principle to the trade enjoyed by Ireland previously, but only to the import and export which were given by itself. This was the Magna Charta of Irish trade, but was now to be destroyed.

As to trade with foreign colonies, Ireland was not restricted by the act of 1780, but he agreed, that upon an equal and fair construction of the navigation laws, as adopted by Yelverton's act, Ireland was restrained from intercourse with foreign colonies; but then gentlemen must admit, that this construction put Ireland on an equal footing with Great Britain, and opened British ports to Irish ships, as it did Irish ports to British ships. If this was denied, the Irish nation was not restrained from trading with foreign colonies; if it were admitted, she had a right to the intercourse which was made the pretence for the present settlement, and was considered as one branch of the price that she was to receive for the numerous disadvantages she was to submit to in return.

The debate ended with a majority for the government the numbers being-

Ayes,	• • •	• • •	• • •	127
Noes,		•••		108
Majority	for the	resolutions,	• • •	19

This majority, however, was considered too small, Propositions through carespecially taking into account the personal importance of ried, yet those who composed the minority, to justify further pro- by government, with gress with the measure, and so it was dropped; the minister indecent making his retreat with a motion on the 15th of August, and disaprended in the measure, and so it was dropped; the minister indecent making his retreat with a motion on the 15th of August, and disaprended in the measure, and so it was dropped; the minister indecent making his retreat with a motion on the 15th of August, and disaprended in the measure in the measure in the measure in the minister indecent making his retreat with a motion on the 15th of August, and disaprended in the measure in the minister indecent making his retreat with a motion on the 15th of August, and disaprended in the measure in th to read a first time, print, and then leave before the pointment. country, the bill founded on the resolutions thus passed.

A most animated debate occurred on that occasion; Mr. Grattan, Mr. Flood, Mr. Curran, and other bright names of Irish history, expressing eloquently their joy at the result, and their hope that this would be the last attack on the constitution of Ireland. The ministerial speakers

gave way to much ill temper; and used the most unworthy language in reference to the capabilities of their country. Mr. Flood well remarked at the end of the discussion, that "he had never heard more mischievous, or more inflammatory language, nor more saucy folly." the Chancellor of the Exchequer (Foster) resented the expression, and moved that it should be taken down.

Whereupon Mr. Flood said, "Let my words be taken down. I do not retract my expression; I am ready to maintain and defend it."

And his words were *not* taken down. The government knew too well that he spoke what would be the feeling of the country, when the debate should come before them.

General re-

It is unnecessary to make more extended comment on the whole transaction, than to say:

1.—That we have found it confessed, that these propositions originated in the fear of Ireland protecting her manufactures, in return for the high duties on her imports in England.

2.—They went to fetter Ireland in her foreign and colonial trade; and to make England's commercial legislation virtually control us. Also, to raise our taxation, and to pledge this country irrevocably, and most unconstitutionally, to a tribute.

3.—To appease the English manufacturers, (whose jealousy was pronounced by the English minister himself, to be ignorant, unreasoning, and excessive; as well he might so designate it, when the propositions went to fetter Ireland in their favor,) the scheme was advocated in England as a gain to her, while the Irish parliament were assured that it was a gain to Ireland.

4.—Ireland was promised free access to the British market, which she would have got in name, but not in reality, as the internal taxes of England were to justify

heavy "countervailing" or balancing duties on Irish goods entering her ports-while Ireland was to continue for ever her then low duties on British imports; notwithstanding that the English manufacturer was able, after paving them, to undersell the Irishman at home.

In short, the propositions, whether in their original or final state, went to counteract the commercial freedom and legislative independence, which England had been compelled to concede to Ircland a few years before.

Their defeat was, consequently, a triumph for Ireland, but, owing to the unreformed state of her legislature, a FATAL triumph. Failing to obtain her ends by treaty, England resolved upon the Union, in order thereby to regain and extend her old domination. Parliamentary corruption unfortunately gave her the means; and by that, and the demoniacal expedient of fomenting a rebellion to distract the country, and give excuse for military violence, she reversed our triumph only fifteen years later; and destroyed our commerce, our manufactures, our legislative independence, and our national prosperity.

Besides the points already mentioned, in which circum-0bstructions to prosperistances still existed, after the arrangements of 1779-82, ty of Ireland. unfavourable to the full developement of the resources of Ircland, her advances towards prosperity was a good deal impeded by the heavy public expenses to which the profliprogress. gacy of the government continually subjected her; yet she progressed with what, considering every thing, was an extraordinary rapidity, and in a manner that fully justified the expression of Lord Chancellor Clare, in 1798, when reviewing the occurrences of the previous sixteen years. "There is not," said he, "a nation on the face of the habitable globe, which has advanced in cultivation, in agriculture, in manufactures, with such rapidity, within the same period, as Ircland." The present Lord Grev

recorded his opinion to the same effect, in 1799, as did also Lord Plunket and others. As we have touched upon this subject, we will add here one or two remaining testimonies to the prosperity of Ireland under her own parliament. On the 18th December, 1798, the bankers of Dublin had a meeting, in which they passed these resolutions: "Resolved, that since the renunciation of the power of Great Britain in 1782, to legislate for Ireland, the commerce and prosperity of this kingdom have eminently increased." "Resolved, that we attribute these blessings, under providence, to the wisdom of the Irish parliament." The Guild of Merchants, resolved as follows, (on 14th January, 1799,)—"That the commerce of Ireland has increased, and her manufactures have improved, beyond example, since the independence of this kingdom was restored by the exertions of our countrymen in 1782."

After Repeal those would not exist.

When under all the disadvantages of the remaining repeal those obstructions strictions and inequalities in her commercial relations with England—of the profligate expenditure of a corrupt and hostile government, unchecked because her parliament was unreformed—and of the terrible and wasting wars which marked the latter years of the period 1782-1800, Ireland still so wonderfully prospered—what may not be expected from her, when her reformed and freely-elected parliament shall be legislating for her interests with the lights and experiences of the present day, and a perfect and ever present sense of their speedy accountability to the intelligent and high-minded constituent body; when thus a potent check and control can be constitutionally had over the executive -when English influence over our legislation shall be attainable only by evidences on her part of a real disposition to conciliate and be friends-and when disputes with foreign countries will be rendered most unlikely, first, by the pacific and honest policy which the people of Ireland

will dictate to their representatives; and second, by the respect which a country of such immense and developing resources, and such vast growing strength, will impress upon other nations.

The commercial events from 1785 to the Union need not Occurrences delay us long. Neither the English nor the East India 1785 and the markets had been open to us, by the "Free Trade" Act Union. of 1780. The latter remained altogether shut, notwithstanding the renunciation by England of her claim to hold seeks to get
free trade to
us bound by her laws. Mr. Corry, member for Newry, the East. essayed to draw the attention of the Irish Commons to this in 1783-4, but the matter was evaded on the part of government by their assurances, that in the new commercial system, the plan of which was in preparation, (viz., that brought forward in the "propositions" of 1785,) there would be found a satisfactory arrangement with regard to the India trade. The reader has seen how futile were these assurances.

In 1791, and again in 1792, Mr. George Ponsonby, M. P. Mr. Ponson-by's motions for the borough of Innistioge, brought the subject forward on this subject.

The arguments having been similar, a notice of them on the latter occasion will suffice. Mr. Ponsonby and his supporters considered the time to be most appropriate, inasmuch as the East India Company were about to apply for a renewal of their charter. He said that with the British possessions in the East he did not want to meddle, but that England had no right to exclude Ireland from trade with China and Japan. He estimated that Ireland paid to England for Eastern goods about half-a-million annually—an amount much swelled by the charges on reexportation, which would of course be done away with if Ireland imported direct into her own ports. It was answered that if we meddled with this trade, we would raise the hostility of England against us—that we would

injure her without benefiting ourselves—that we had not money for the trade—that our capital was too small for the existing investments at home, and that if we could even increase it, it would be far better to employ it at home; and finally, that the system of taking those goods from England, if a sacrifice by us, was a "tribute of affection," a mark of "gratitude and friendship," due to England from us, on account of the concessions she had made, and the advantages she gave our linens in her market!

Speeches of Grattan and Curran

These fallacies were ably refuted by Curran (then member for Rathcormac) and Grattan.—(See the Irish Debates, vol. 12, pp. 110-111.)

Mr. Curran adverted to the distinction that had been made, that this was not giving up a right, but making a voluntary concession of the exercise of that right; this, he said, was not merely submitting to subjugation, but coming forward to demand the chain with the meanness and servility of a Capado-Other gentlemen had said, "dont engage the country in a trade that has ruined all that have ever adventured in it," as if gentlemen thought that the motion went to engage them to create commissioners to send the bread of the country to India to be eaten. No act of parliament can prescribe the channels in which commerce shall flow-it was the object of the motion only to leave the field of commerce open to the merchant, and let him avail himself of advantages as he can. The smallness of our capital had been urged against the motion; -that objection, he said, amounted to this-"You have but little money; therefore buy at London for £200, what you can import directly into Dublin for £50."—He desired the House to consider whether, as men of common faith and common probity, they could refuse to their fellow-subjects the exercise of this right, which all acknowledged them to possess; -- for his part, he thought not; and by the determination of the House on this question, their character would stand or fall, if Ireland was not a besotted nation. On those who would hold out the threat of hostile retaliation, if the House should agree to this motion, he was particularly severe. He protested that his blood run cold when he conceived, even for a moment, this country in such circumstances, that she dreaded hostility from a sister kingdom

for asserting and exercising what was acknowledged her undoubted right. Really, the question was not at all between Britain and Ireland, but between the people of Ireland together with the unchartered people of England, and a small number of chartered monopolists. The present he conceived to be a question of general liberty, and as a friend to the liberties of the people of England and Ireland, he should vote for it.

Mr. Grattan followed Mr. Curran, and supported the motion: he said that "the House of Commons of Ireland were not justified-had no power to reject the principle of a bill, which, like the present, was to confer a benefit to the people of Ireland -to liberate the commerce and constitution of the kingdom, which, from what had been advanced by gentlemen, appeared to hang and depend from the constitution and commerce of Britain. Parliament had, he granted, a right to modify and regulate trade, but they had none to destroy it, as they did the

India commerce."

The obligation of this country to Great Britain was little; he mentioned her modification of the Channel trade, and her interpretation of the navigation act, as instances of unfair conduct on the part of Britain. " As to the profits of this or any other trade, parliament had no right to take them into consideration: to leave the trade open was their duty; that of the merchant to consider of its profits. The want of capital was a frivolous objection, for if the bill passed, there would be imported capital: he knew that there was a very large foreign capital ready to be embarked to-morrow in the trade, if it were opened; and he called to the recollection of gentlemen, that the principal argument ministers had used in favour of the propositions was, that foreign capital would be immediately imported, if these propositions passed."

Corruption had already begun to blast the once vigorous Motion deshoot of Irish parliamentary independence, and so these and other arguments were unavailing, and ministers defeated the motion on a division of 156 to 70.

Still to have asked the Irish parliament for their consent musory modification of to a renewal of the India Company's charter, would have it prepared been too gross even for the government of the day; and government, in so, when in 1793 it was necessary to procure this renewal, order to get the Irish parliament. a modification of the restrictions on Irish commerce to the parliament

East India Company's Charter,

to renew the East, was offered by Mr. Secretary Hobart, by a bill which he introduced in the month of June of that year, enacting that an Indiaman of 800 tons should be sent to Cork, or some other Irish port, annually, to take on board Irish exports to that amount for the countries beyond the Cape of Good Hope, and to do so at the reduced rate of freightage of £5 per ton.

The boon was illusory. In the first place, the Irish merchant should give previous notice of the quantity and quality of the goods he purposed to have ready for the ship; and such notice reaching the London merchants, prior to her sailing for Ireland, they had it of course in their power to forestall the Irishman in the vessels that went direct from London. In the second place, he could not get returns from the East directly back to his own ports; but should receive them through London, grievously surcharged of course, in consequence of their circuitous, slow, and (owing to the difficulties of the Channel navigation) perilous voyage.

But it was enough for the minister and the venal herd who supported him, that there was even the appearance of a concession; and on the strength of that appearance, vague and shadowy as it was, he forced the measure upon the country, and obtained the renewal of the East India charter.

And carried

Notices of the debates on the subject.

In the debates on the subject, the abstract right of Ireland to trade to the East was not contested; but the old fallacy of its not being a trade likely to be of any benefit to her, was again brought forward and insisted upon. It was urged too, as before, that her consenting to abandon it would be only a proper proof of gratitude to England, not only for the concessions of 1779-80, but for an act just then passed in the British parliament, giving, as it was said, "the full construction of the navigation act" to Ireland, by allowing her to re-export to England, such goods of Asia, Africa, and America, as she did not want for her own consumption. This matter had been mooted by Mr. Grattan in 1787, but then rejected; as ministers then had not an India bill to carry.

In fact Ireland had purchased this privilege long before; Unrequited and at a price far outweighing the very limited advantages of Ireland. which it could give her. In 1785, she had at the beginning of the session, granted £140,000 in new taxes, on expectation of this and other concessions, which she was to get from the settlement of the "commercial propositions" of that year. And ever since the year 1763, she had maintained 3,000 men for the defence of the West Indies; although until 1780 denied trade with them, and not being entirely freed from restriction in that respect, until the year 1793 itself. Again, she had in 1780 consented to adopt the enormous English duty on import of raw sugars, and to exclude foreign—a tremendous sacrifice for so poor a country, in regard of such an important necessary. And finally, she had at the same time, while restricted as to the advantages, adopted all the penalties of the navigation act, in particular that which restricted her from providing her trade with foreign shipping; which for a time would have been her best and most economical policy.

We have little to delay us now from the consideration of the arrangements in commercial matters at the time of the Union. Any minor regulations from 1785 to 1800, concerning them, whether adopted by England to bolster up her monopolies, or by Ireland to modify her infant manufactures, the effect of their nearly total exclusion from English ports, will be found sufficiently noted in the debates of that period. We therefore here make no further last attempt delay than to mention, that on the 20th February, 1794, fair com-Mr. Grattan made a last and unsuccessful effort to induce mercial arrangement.

the parliament to demand admission for Irish manufactures into England, on terms as favourable as English commodities were allowed on entry into Ireland. He was ably supported by Mr. Duquery, colleague of Curran, in the representation of the borough of Rathcormac, who recapitulated the commercial injustices of England, and the concessions of Ireland, and alluded to some of the details of disparity of duties between the two countries—woollen cloths, or "old drapery," being charged with £2 0s. 6d. in English ports, and only 50d. per yard in Irish. Woollen stuffs, and mixed goods, or "new drapery," (as they were styled,) being 6s. per yard on import into England, and only 1d. here. Irish cotton goods being shut out by a duty of 30 per cent., while we took English at only 10 per cent.; and finally, all but our plain linens being charged with 65 per cent. by her, while the duty in our ports was no more than in the case of cottons.*

Attempt baffled.

Mr. Grattan was obliged to content himself with the old hollow plausibilities, and indeed proved and insulting fallacies respecting English generosity, past and future, put forward by Mr. Secretary Douglas and the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and the motion was withdrawn.

The 'Union' broached in 1799.

On the fatal 22nd of January, 1799, the Lord Lieutenant's speech broached the subject of the Union. On this occasion, Mr. George Ponsonby moved an amendment to the "address in answer," to the effect that Ireland would maintain her parliament. The amendment being lost by a majority of one, (the numbers being 105 and 106,) and a division two days afterwards, on the same subject, hav-

^{*} A Report of the Lords of the Committee of Council in England, in 1785, states that all woollens, stuffs made or mixed with wool, cottons of all kinds, linen printed, leather manufactures, candles, soap, and refined sugar, were prohibited in English ports; while in Irish they paid but a trifling duty. Also cheese, gold and silver twist and lace, laces, all kinds of silks, ribbons, gauzes, velvets, gloves, glass, earthenware, &c.

ing also gone against the friends of Ireland, the Union measure itself was shortly after introduced by Lord Castlereagh, but that session rejected, to the great joy of the nation. It was a short-lived joy—the recess was spent by ministers in corrupting the parliament; many were got to promise to reverse their patriotic votes of the past session; others to resign to make room for nominees and tools of the minister; and in consequence, an anti-union amendment proposed by Sir Laurence Parsons, to the address, on the opening of the session, January 15th, 1800, was lost by a majority of 42, (in a house of 234 members,) although many of the government nominees had not taken their seats.

The commercial arrangements of the Union, as finally carried in that year, were as follows:—

Article 6.—That it be the sixth article of Union, that his Majesty's subjects of Great Britain and Ireland, shall, from and after the 1st day of January, 1801, be entitled to the same privileges, and be on the same footing as to encouragements and bounties on the like articles, being the growth, produce, or manufacture of either country respectively and generally, in respect of trade and navigation, in all ports and places in the United Kingdom and its dependencies; and that in all treaties made by his Majesty, his heirs, and successors, with any foreign power, his Majesty's subjects of Ireland shall have the same privileges, and be on the same footing as his Majesty's subjects of Great Britain.

That from the 1st day of January, 1801, all prohibitions and bounties on the export of articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of either country, to the other, shall cease and determine, and that the said articles shall thenceforth be exported from one country to the other without duty or bounty on such export.

That all articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of either country, (not hereinafter enumerated as subject to specific duties,) shall from henceforth be imported into each country from the other free from duty, other than such countervailing duties on the several articles enumerated in the schedule to said act annexed, or such other countervailing duties as shall

hereafter be imposed by the parliament of the United Kingdom, in the manner herein-after provided; and that for the period of twenty years from the Union, the articles enumerated in another schedule thereunto annexed, shall be subject, on importation into each country from the other, to the duties specified in the said schedule; and the woollen manufactures, known by the names of old and new drapery, shall pay on importation into each country from the other, the duties now payable on importation into Ireland.

Salt and hops, on importation into Ireland from Great Britain, shall be subject to duties not exceeding those which are now paid on importation into Ireland; and coals, on importation into Ireland from Great Britain, shall be subject to burthens not

exceeding those to which they are now subject.

That calicoes and muslins shall, on their importation into either country for the other, be subject and liable to the duties now payable on the same, on the importation thereof from Great Britain into Ireland, until the fifth day of January, 1808; and from and after the said day the said duties shall be annually reduced by equal proportions as near as may be in each year, so as that the said duties shall stand at 10 per centum from and after the fifth day of January, 1816, until the fifth day of January, 1821; and that cotton-yarn and cotton-twist shall, on their importation into either country from the other, be subject and liable to the duties now payable upon the same on the importation thereof from Great Britain into Ireland, until the fifth day of January, 1808; and from and after the said day the said duties shall be annually reduced by equal proportions as near as may be in each year, so as that all duties shall cease on the said articles from and after the fifth day of January, 1816.

That any articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of either country, which are or may be subject to internal duty, or to duty on the materials of which they are composed, may be made subject, on their importation into each country respectively from the other, to such countervailing duty as shall appear to be just and reasonable in respect of such internal duty or duties on the materials, and that for the said purposes the articles specified in the said schedules shall be subject to the duties set forth therein, liable to be taken off, diminished, or increased in the manner herein specified; and that upon the export of the said articles from each country to the other respectively, a drawback shall be given equal in amount to the countervailing duty payable on such articles on the import

thereof into the same country from the other; and that, in like manner, in future it shall be competent to the united parliament to impose any new or additional countervailing duties, or to take off or diminish such existing countervailing duties as may appear, on like principles, to be just and reasonable, in respect of any future or additional internal duty, on any article of the growth, produce, or manufacture of either country, or of any new or additional duty on any materials of which such article may be composed, or of any abatement of duty on the same; and that when any such new or additional countervailing duty shall be so imposed, on the import of any article into either country from the other, a drawback, equal in amount to such countervailing duty, shall be given in like manner on the export of every such article respectively, from the same country to the

That all articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of either country, when exported through the other, shall in all cases be exported subject to the same charges as if they had been exported directly from the country of which they were

the growth, produce, or manufacture:

That all duty charged on the import of foreign or colonial goods into either country, shall, on their export to the other, be either drawn back, or the amount (if any be retained) shall be placed to the credit of the country to which they shall be so exported, so long as the expenditure of the United Kingdom shall be defrayed by proportional contributions; provided always, that nothing herein shall extend to take away any duty, bounty, or prohibition, which exists with respect to corn, meal, malt, flour, or biscuit, but that all duties, bounties, or prohibitions on the said articles may be regulated, varied, or repealed from time to time, as the united parliament shall deem expedient.

The Speaker of the Irish Commons, the Right Honora- The union ble John Foster, (afterwards Lord Oriel,) was the chief arrangeamong several able opponents of these regulations. 1799 and in 1800 he made powerful speeches in opposition, and went largely into the subject of the commercial relations of the two countries, and exposed their past and future inequalities and injustices towards Irish interests. His objections to the 6th Article of Union were briefly as follows :--

Foster's denunciation of them. That they lowered all protecting duties that were above 10 per cent., to that amount; and thus exposed the infant manufactures of Ireland (which the Irish parliament had in latter years began to protect) to the overwhelming competition of the great capital and long established skill and ability of England. That no less than seventy articles of our manufacture would thus be injured; and our cotton manufactures in particular, in which we had begun to make most promising advances, would be nearly ruined. That no preference over foreign goods in the British market was given. That the "new and excessive" duties on salt were made perpetual; those on hops and coals unalterable; that our brewery was left unprotected, &c. &c.

He added, that what little protection remained in any particular, was herein provided to cease and determine after the lapse of a specified number of years.

the tapse of a specified number of years

To rightly understand the effect of these arrangements, it is necessary to review, very briefly, the leading circumstances of Ireland's commercial position.

She had, by the acts of 1779-80, obtained the freedom of foreign and colonial trade, both of export and of import.

By the act of 1793 she had obtained liberty to reexport foreign and colonial goods from her own shores to England.

She had, by an English act of the same year, got the loudly vaunted, but utterly illusory privilege of having an eight-hundred-ton East Indiaman to make up a cargo for the East, in her ports.

But she had not free trade to the East, nor had she admission to English ports for her own goods.

This latter she had been, and was very desirous of obtaining. In the hope that England would have made the concession, the Irish parliament, for some years after

The commercial position of Ireland at that time.

1780, refused the solicitations of their own merchants, to retaliate on her, by raising the Irish import duties. So eager were they to obtain it, that they jumped at the propositions of 1785, and, notwithstanding the violations of justice and the constitution which the propositions involved, had nearly adopted them, when Flood, aided speedily and powerfully by Grattan, woke up the public mind against them, and caused their abandonment.

It was not till after a fair experiment and delay that the She had not Irish parliament, despairing of getting England to terms by English fair means, commenced retaliation. To this we have the with her till driven to incontestable testimony of the Commissioners of Revenue do so. Enquiry in 1822—an authority by no means disposed to be over-favorable to Irish interests, or over-anxious for the credit of the Irish parliament. In their Fourth Report, speaking of the system of restrictions on English goods, and bounties on their own, to which that parliament had had recourse; they say,

Ireland was, undoubtedly, instigated to the adoption of this English course by the exclusive spirit of the commercial policy of Eng-ledgment land. It will be found, that few exceptions in favour of the of this. sister-kingdom were inserted in the list of goods absolutely prohibited to be imported into this country (England), in which list, all goods made of cotton-wool, every description of manufactured woollen, silk, and leather, together with cattle, sheep, malt, stuffs, and other less important articles, were at one time comprehended. In this embarrassing situation of exclusion from the markets of Great Britain, and deriving little assistance from foreign trade, Ireland had no other course to pursue for the protection of her own industry, except that of mantaining, by restrictive duties on the importation from Great Britain, the manufacturing means she possessed for the supply of her own markets.

What the Irish parliament had been seeking, was not an absolute free-trade with England, which they believed would cause the ruin of their struggling, though growing

manufactures, but some such arrangement as the following, suggested in the year 1780, by no less an authority than the English Board of Trade itself:

The best plan is, that the two kingdoms lay on certain moderate duties, to be imposed on the manufactures of the other; such as will secure a due preference in the home-market to like articles of its own growth and manufacture; and yet leave to the sister kingdom advantages, though not equal to its own, yet superior to those granted to any foreign country. The duties payable on British goods imported into Ireland, seem, by their moderation, as well adapted to answer the purpose as any that could be devised: but to make this system complete, there should be added proper regulations with respect to bounties in future, and with respect to the duties on raw materials imported into each kingdom.

It is, in the judgment of the committee, a great recommendation of this plan, that if it should be carried into execution, and become the system in which both countries shall be bound hereafter to conform, it will secure them in future from the unpleasant contests, to which, in pursuit of their respective interests, they may be otherwise exposed; and his Majesty, as sovereign of the two kingdoms, will be relieved from the disagreeable situation of having laws presented to him by the respective Houses of Parliament, for his assent, which, though beneficial to one of his kingdoms, may, in their opinion, be

highly detrimental the interest of the other.

But it suited not the temper of the manufacturing interests in England to make any such arrangement, and their influence on the legislature prevented any step being taken on this recommendation. However, the retaliatory measures to which Ireland was at length driven, alarmed the selfishness of those interests, and compelled them to abandon the system of "leaving things as they were." The question then was, how to change them, without granting too much to Ireland. It was seen that such a change could be effected only by a Union, which, while it granted in appearance the commercial advantage that Ireland required, would, as we shall immediately shew, nullify it in

The consequence of her doing effect, by operation of the accompanying regulations. And Commercial motives of this project of a Union had the further recommendation, England to accomplish that Ireland, in return for the apparent advantage alluded the Union. to, was to reduce at once to an utterly inefficient and insignificant amount, the import duties that had hitherto saved her home manufactures, and finally to abolish those duties altogether—and furthermore was to be subjected to the ruinously exhausting drains of capital, which were easily foreseen to be the inevitable consequence of the measure in agitation.

The advantage to Ireland of admission for her goods Its provisions nugainto English ports, was, as in the case of the propositions to good to Irish of 1785, nullified by the provision by which "countervail-commerce." ing" duties were put on them there, to balance the heavier excise duties which such goods of English manufacture had to pay. On the other hand English goods going to Ireland, got a drawback, on export from England, of the heavy English excise duty they had paid, and entering Ireland, met a much lower rate of excise, where at all existing, and had consequently only a very moderate "countervailing" duty put upon them here.

The "drains of capital" alluded to, as occasioned by the Its absence leaves no Union, have been spoken of at large, in the article on the hope for our manufac-"Taxation Injustice," and therefore need not be dwelt tures. upon here. They consist of the surplus revenue taken from Ireland—the payments for foreign goods received now through England, which formerly we received direct—and above all, the millions spent out of the country by the absentce proprietors. These last had no attraction to remain in their native land, when the parliament was gone; and the consequence has been, that they have emigrated in such numbers, that whereas a million and a half was the amount of this drain in 1801, it is now generally believed to exceed four millions and a half-a sum equal

to the whole revenue that Ireland is able to contribute to the state.

Irish capital drained away.

The aggregate of annual "drain" from Ireland at the present moment, far exceeds the double of her public revenue!

When money was thus constantly, and in an annually increasing amount, flowing out of Ireland without return, during the period of years allotted by the act of Union for the gradual cessation of the remaining protecting duties, it can well be conceived that commercial enterprize, and all the operations of industry, declined and grew less. the twenty years then that elapsed ere the commercial arrangements of the Union were re-considered in 1821, the manufactures of Ireland may, at the best, be said to have dragged on a sickly and precarious existence; rather, than to have maintained, much less improved, the vigour that had marked their early growth before 1800. Capital and customers were ebbing out with unremitting and indeed accumulating speed, and thus the home support was being destroyed, while the vision of an English market for Irish manufactures was dispelled by the hard realities of the high countervailing duties in English ports.

The political economist will allow that a country subjected to such ruinous drains had an excuse for desiring to linger out a little longer under the faint protection of the Union duties. What has since occurred was easily foreseen—that with the removal of all impediment to the entry of English goods, the weakened manufacturers of Ireland would be driven out even of their own impoverished home market, and the population of Ireland thrown altogether on the single resource of agricultural employment for subsistence. Hence the undue pressure on that means of industry and subsistence; and hence all the miseries and their consequences—the agrarian disturbances and crimes that we have had and have to deplore.

Those duties might well have been left at least a while longer; if only to give a practical proof to their advocates in Ireland, of their futility for any lasting good. The economists ought not to have dreaded to test their own doctrines. It would have been much to have secured by conviction, from the indisputable experience of facts, the assent of the Irish manufacturing community and those bound up with it, to the measure of abolition. Nor had English interests really any thing to dread from the further experiment. Irish manufactures, as we have said, were certainly and unremittingly declining and perishing. But the cruel spirit of commercial monopoly was not to be satisfied so long as any vitality remained; and though the cries of the perishing artizans of Ireland did, by some strange chance, reach the ears of the English parliament in 1821, and procure some extension of the time originally marked out for the duration of the "Union Duties," yet in the very next year a commission was appointed, as it would seem, to find excuses for getting rid of them, and on its report their doom was sealed, and they were got rid of with as much haste as decency at all allowed."*

altogether! In the same way a grant of £10,000, voted annually since the Union to the Wide-streed Board, and defended by Sir Robert Peel, (when secretary for Ireland,) as no more than a fitting partial compensation to Dublin, for the evil consequences of the Union to that city, was withdrawn, a short time before the withdrawal of the linen grant, with quite as little apology or warning. And no later than last year (to pass over some other instances of particular injustice) we had one general sweeping blow made at all the charitable institutions of Dublin, that received any aid from the public

^{*} Scant as was the decency observed towards us in these respects, it was still less, or rather none at all, in others, since the Union. Notwithstanding, that in 1825, a committee (of course of the imperial parliament) had, after a patient and full enquiry, reported that "Ireland had undoubtedly strong claims for every encourgement to her linen manufacture, at least to the extent of the annual grant of parliament;" (viz. £20,000, the remnant of the old promised encouragement to that manufacture;)—notwithstanding this deliberate opinion, twice expressed in their report, the grant was reduced three years afterwards one-half, and the succeeding year withdrawn altogether!

Since the abolition of these duties, the Englishman has had complete command of our market. The instances are many in which attempts in Ireland to restore some waning or perished manufacture, have been crushed by means of the temporary sacrifice of profit which the superior wealth

purse. A commission was issued to enquire into the claims of such institutions in Dublin to receive aid not given elsewhere. The report of the commissioners—conservative gentlemen of great respectability and most undoubtedly no Repealers—is an admirable rebuff to the petty prying jealousy that instigated such an enquiry. It would have been more dignified for a government to have sought information on the subject privately, ere committing itself by an overt act, betraying malice prepense; and malice too that is now defeated of its object. The following is some of the main

part of the report:

"Immediately after the Union, Dublin, it may be said, ceased to be a metropolis as regards the wealthy, while it continued a metropolis as regards the poor; and in no inconsiderable degree it has remained so since. The causes, therefore, which induced those who framed the articles of Union to introduce stipulations into that measure as regards Dublin, appears to us hardoute still in extensive operation. Other causes likewise (not, however, having effect on Dublin alone)—the increase of population, without a corresponding increase in wealth, the want of capital, the decay of manufactures in Ireland, operating to increase the proportion of poor—have operated likewise to increase rather than diminish the cogency of those reasons which led to the stipulations in the articles of Union.

"In evidence of this we beg leave to notice the increased accommodation which the governors at different periods, and with the sanction of government, have been compelled to supply in most of these institutions, and the increased grants, notwithstanding the financial difficulties of the empire, which various governments have deemed it necessarry to make for their

support.
"In further evidence of this disproportionate increase of the poorer "In further evidence of this disproportionate increase of the poorer classes in Dublin we have to observe that, notwithstanding the support thus rendered by government to certain institutions, others of a similar character, arising principally out of the exigencies of the lower classes, have been established and are supported, some by private means alone, and some partly from private means, and partly from local assessment.

"We therefore submit that the necessity which was found to exist previous to and at the time of the Union for extraneous support as regards.

Dublin, in aid of its principal charitable institutions, (arising, in our opinion, from the disproportion between the wealthy and the poorer classes of the community,) has, as was anticipated, increased since that period, and still continues, although, we trust and believe, it may be now gradually

diminishing.
"Dublin, therefore, with its population of upwards of 250,000, is, in the empire: and we respectour opinion, an exception to all other cities in the empire; and we respectfully urge, that because in London and the other large towns in England, private charity may have been found amply sufficient for the support of their public charitable institutions, it by no means follows, that in Dublin, where the poor are so numerous, and the rich comparatively are so few,

of the English capitalist enabled him to make, to undersell his rash Irish competitor. The worm at the vitals of Irish enterprize, is the want of capital, and till the latter is restored, there is little hope for our manufacturers and artizans.

But to restore this capital, the Repeal of the Act of It will be Union was and is necessary. The parliament must be at Repeal. home; 1st, to give the absentees an inducement to come home; 2nd, to enable us to stop the drains of revenue, by getting rid of the unjust burthen of English debt; and, 3rd, to give us the means of making our own commercial arrangements with foreign countries, whereby we can not only prevent the recurrence of such reckless injury to our commercial interests, as was involved in the recent commercial negociations of England with France and Portugal, but we can obtain advantages, which our being bound now to the high tariffs of England, prevents us from obtaining in foreign countries; and furthermore, shall have all the duty paid by us on foreign imports credited to our own revenue, instead of, as now, going to swell the receipts of the English exchequer.

Under this altered state of circumstances we should have a sum of from eight to nine millions of money, at the very least, annually spent in the country, which is now drained out of her, and as much lost to her as if thrown into the sea!

The question as to what should be the international arrangements between the two countries, after the Repeal, in matters of commerce, is one of too much weight to be

it would be reasonable or just to expect from her citizens an extent of liberality which neither their numbers nor circumstances could fairly warrant.

This answer shamed the government out of their plan of stopping the grants, which, after all, have been found not to have amounted since 1800 to more than 120,000% in the whole!

introduced incidentally. We therefore refer it to the concluding article of the Appendix; where the whole subject of the future relations between Great Britain and Ireland is dealt with.

But it may be permitted here to remark, that, in any case, there is no disposition in Ireland to give, by high duties against English or other goods imported, an encouragement to the smuggler to begin or carry on his demoralizing and crime-producing operations. Whether with England or any other country, our scale of duties in no case should overpass the moderate point at which revenue, and revenue alone,* (not protection—which, as to manufactures, really means premium to smuggling,) is attainable; and attainable with the advantage of enabling internal duties to be lowered or abolished.

We venture to prophesy, that in these, as in other matters, there will be found very little difficulty on the part of Ireland, in coming to a settlement perfectly satisfactory to Great Britain as to herself—provided always that she be dealt with in good faith and good feeling. A just arrangement as to the present *unjust* liability to public debt, would go far towards securing a permanency of this disposition on her part; and towards obviating the necessity for taxation.

It is for the interest of English capitalists themselves, that Ireland should have every facility and opportunity afforded that may develope her commercial and manufacturing capabilities. The Englishman who attempts an enterprize in Ireland finds the same difficulties and discouragements as the native. The want of rich customers, of steady markets, of manufactures subordinate and necessary to that on which he is engaged—a want which

^{*} Such revenue duties not however to be on the import of materials of manufacture.

compels him to send to England for the construction or repair of some of his engines or tools of ordinary use, or for the purchase of some tributary minor articlethese impediments, greatly aggravated and increased by the combination (so often felt by us) of manufacturers resident in England, who had hitherto supplied the Irish market, and who, on the first attempt at competition, sacrifice their profits in order to undersell by rates ruinously low to a beginner, -soon dishearten and compel the abandonment of his design; and induce him to look elsewhere for a profitable investment.

Failing thus of a field in Ireland, and that at home (in England) being overstocked, English surplus capital has been forced to seek investments in countries in the other hemisphere, where the circumstances of natural position, or of peculiar legislation, or of both combined, ensured advantage for goods produced in the country, over imported articles.

The contemptible fallacy, that "agitation has kept English capital out of Ireland," falls to the ground at once, when we consider the continued civil distractions and endless and sanguinary revolutions of the South American States, into which English capital has so largely and steadily flowed.

Our sketch of the many commercial injustices inflicted Summary upon this country by Great Britain is now done. We have conclusion. shown how uniformly intolerant has been the conduct of the latter. Every interest of ours checked, repressed, put in abevance, when thought to come at all in contact with hers —delusive promises held out—lasting and reckless injury inflicted.

At the beginning of the last century her cry was, that we were not fit for the woollen manufacture; but that if we devoted ourselves to linen, we should have the highest

encouragement in that branch. It has been the object of these pages to prove how she kept that promise "to the ear, but broke it to the hope," by giving greater encouragement to the Scotch linen, and to her own. The cry since the Union has been, that we ought not to think of any manufacture, but to devote ourselves to the supplying Great Britain with our agricultural produce. The tariff of last year proves that she does not hold herself bound to us in this particular either.

In truth, she has done what, after all, was but natural; attended to her own interests, and to her own interests alone. The misfortune to us has been, that she has had the power of controlling our interests. This power must be got rid of, if we would ever hope to see our country attain to that prosperity, of which Providence has so abundantly given her the means, but of which she has so long been cruelly deprived by man.

ADDENDA

TO THE

"COMMERCIAL INJUSTICES."

No. 1.

The progress of the Linen Trade of Ireland was as follows: Taking our figures, partly from M'Culloch's Commercial Dictionary, (article "Linen,") but mainly from the Report of the Hand-loom Weavers' Enquiry; and taking also the seven years averages stated in that Report, to be the proper measure by which to estimate such progress, we find that—

EXPORT OF IRISH LINEN.

	[1714 1,665,486]	Increase in this period of
The average of 7 years	1700 10 550 970	66 yrs. 17,890,893 yds.
including and ending	178019,550,579	66 yrs. 17,890,893 yds. Ditto, 2nd period, 18 yrs.
respectively with the	179841,670,972	22,114,593 yards.
vears.	1005 45 500 507	Ditto, from 1800 up to
J	182547,588,707	Ditto, from 1800 up to 1825, 5,917,735 yards.
	L .	

A very short calculation will shew, that had the linen trade progressed in the first period as it did in the second, it ought to have shewn an increase above the statement for 1714, of not less than eighty millions, instead of eighteen. And, similarly, had it progressed since the Union in the manner in which it did during the same second period stated above, it ought to have shewn an increase over that period, of not less than thirty millions, instead of being short of six millions!

But the defect since the Union is not only on comparison with the period that Ireland had the free management of her commercial concerns, but even in comparison with the period previous to 1780. It will be seen that at the rate of progression in the period since the Union, nearly eighty years should

elapse ere the linen trade could make the same advance, that, under the guidance even of her fettered and restricted parliament before 1780, she had made in sixty-six years!

One of the assistant commissioners of the enquiry, whose report we quote, seeks to make it appear, that the increase since the Union is more valuable than the mere figures would denote: his remark is:

"Ireland lost in a great measure her coarse linen trade, owing to the prohibition placed on export of yarn in 1784, which forced the English manufacturers to turn their attention to providing yarn at home; which they did so successfully, as not only to be able to be independent of a supply from Ireland, but also to drive the Irish out of the market in those coarse fabrics to which their mill-spun yarn was capable of being applied. The exports of linen since 1800 were chiefly of the finer linens, and therefore indicate a greater degree of prosperity of the linen trade than would at first appear."—Otway's Report H. L. Enquiry, p. 620.

The over-anxiety of Mr. Commissioner Otway to prove that the Union has done every thing for us, has here led him into a mis-statement. If he were correct, then must the English manufacturers of 50 years ago, have been very different men from the keen, active, and enterprizing class they are at this day; inasmuch as they must have taken not less than sixteen years (viz. from 1784 to 1801) to provide themselves elsewhere than from Ireland, with a material so much needed as linen-yarn! But the fact is, as Mr. Otway might have seen, had he consulted the debates of the Irish parliament during that time, and the publications in Ireland having relation to commerce, that the English market became almost immediately shut to the Irish coarse linens, after the export of yarn to that market was stopped; and that consequently the export from Ireland during much the greater part of the period 1784—1801, was of the

It may be argued that the small proportion which the post-Union increase of linen-export bears to that between 1780 and 1798, is mainly owing to the fact that there was not room for much further improvement; the linen, like every other trade, having its limits. This, however, is in fact only another testimony to the beneficial influence of Irish home legislation, since under its short-lived auspices, the utmost limit was so nearly attained. And it remains for the advocates of the Union to shew, that had that measure never been carried, the six millions

finer description.

increase up to 1825 would not have occurred by the mere force of the increase of demand in England, caused by the increase of population in that country, to say nothing of the continuance of that beneficial influence which, on such good ground of indisputable figures, we ascribe to "home-legislation."

It is unanimously acknowledged and declared, that since 1825, when the traffic between the two countries was assimilated to a coasting trade, and consequently official records ceased to be kept, all estimates of the commercial progress of Ireland arc, at best, but good guesses. In the truly valuable "Irish Railway Report," drawn up by the lamented Mr. Drummond, this deficiency is spoken of, and deplored. He sought to supply it by taking the exaggerated reports of individual merchants; who naturally enough wished to make their dealings appear as large as the wide range of probability at all allowed. With all his candour Mr. Drummond was not adverse to these exaggerations: it was a point with him, as with British writers in general, and persons reporting to the imperial parliament in particular, to make out, as far as possible, a "prosperity case" for the Union. He therefore sets down our linen export to have been in 1835, 70 millions of yards, without however attempting to say that that was a seven-years average. We can afford to admit, for the sake of argument, that the average was so high; and yet the period 1780-1798 will be found to have proportionably exceeded it. If those 18 years gave an *increase* of 22 millions of yards, the 35 years of the Railway Report ought to have given an increase of 42 millions. But they actually gave no higher amount than 28,600,000 yards!

There has been much parade about the success of this trade in the North. By some it is asserted strongly, by others denied. By others again—and those persons employed by government—nothing is declared positively. For instance, amongst others, one of the Hand-loom Commissioners of 1839, Mr. Commissioner Muggeridge.

Mr. Commissioner Muggeridge declares his inability, "in common with all who have attempted the enquiry" before him, to say whether it is flourishing or not—and he states that

opinions are divided on the subject in the North itself.

The very controversy which exists as to the state of that trade is an unfavourable sign. When a branch of industry is really flourishing in any country, do we usually find, even among those at a distance from the scene of action, doubts and disputes

existing on the subject? Yet they are to be found rife among persons intimately conversant with the linen trade in the North, as will be seen by the following extracts:—

"Mr. William Kirk, a member of the linen committee of the county Armagh, says—'I think the linen trade is increas-

ing.'

"Mr. William Miller, a member of the linen committee of the county of Antrim, states—'There has been an increase in the linen trade of Ballymena within the last seven years, but nevertheless there has been, generally speaking, a decrease in the linen trade of Ireland during the same period.'

"Mr. Edward Sproule, a member of the county Tyrone committee, states—that 'the linen trade of Ulster is not so

extensive as it was twenty years ago.'

"Mr. John Walker, of Magherafelt, writes—'I am of opinion the linen trade of Ireland is increasing in quantity, though

the last two years make an exception.'

"Messrs. William Orr and Sons, linen manufacturers at Loughgall, county Armagh, writes—'We consider it decreasing in many particulars, and that the Scotch are taking a great deal of it from us."—Mr. Muggeridge's Report, Hand-Loom Weavers' Inquiry.

In the second Report of the Committee of the Imperial House of Commons, June, 1825, there was a strong recommendation (based on a consideration of the strict justice of some encouragement to an important trade in a country so injured by the Union) that the annual grant to the linen trade should be continued. But Goulburn, in the following year, reduced it one-half, and the year after abolished it entirely.

A large proportion of the export at present consists of yarn, instead of being all of the fully manufactured article, as it ought to be, were the trade really at the high pitch of prosperity which the advocates of the Union would pretend.

And even this yarn trade is decreasing. The following is from

the annual finance accounts:-

EXPORT TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES FROM IRELAND.

VALUE OF	1839	1842	1844
Linen Manufactures, And Linen Yarn	$\pounds 63,847 172,602$	£ 25,350 110,486	£ 14,320 36,915

We cannot better conclude this article than by the following quotations from Professor Kane relative to the linen trade:—

"In the work on Ireland, published by Mr. and Mrs. Hall, some statistical results are given, which they obtained by personal inquiry in Belfast, and which, though probably above the truth, are not more exaggerated than is usual with such general estimates. They consider that there are in Belfast, now at work, 155,000 spindles, consuming 210 tons of flax per week, and that there are employed in the manufacture of flax, 170,000 hands. They estimate the total number of persons supported by the linen trade as not less than half a million; that the annual value of the linen cloth manufactured in Ulster is not less than £4,000,000; the capital involved in its production not less than £5,000,000; and that the annual amount of wages paid to those engaged in the manufacture amounts to £1,200,000. This sum, for the 170,000 above mentioned, would make the average

wages to be only 2s. 9d. per week.

"The extent of this manufacture stands in such relief from the usual absence of all manufacturing industry in Ireland, that we frequently attach to it a degree of importance, and an idea of absolute magnitude that it does not really possess. Thus we often hear the linen manufacture spoken of as being the staple of this country, whilst wool and cotton are in return the natural manufactures of the sister kingdom. In reality, however, Ireland is almost as much behind in this as in every other branch of industry. The town of Dundee alone is considered to manufacture as much linen as all Ireland, and the relation which the manufacture of flax bears in the three kingdoms, is exactly shown in the following table, which is extracted from the Report of the Factory Inspectors for 1839, since which period no sensible alteration has taken place.

"In England there were 169 mills, worked by 4,260 horse

power, and employing 16,573 persons.

"In Scotland 183 mills worked by 4,845 horse power, and employing 17,897 persons.

"In Ireland forty mills, worked by 1,980 horse power, and

employing 9,017 persons.

"It is difficult to reconcile this official return with the estimate of Mr. Hall, just before quoted; as the proportion of homespun and woven linen goods can scarcely be so considerable as to account for the discrepancy."

No. 2.

MISCELLANEA, HAVING REFERENCE TO THE COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, INTERNAL PROSPERITY, &c. &c. OF IRELAND,
BEFORE AND AFTER THE UNION.

The "Balance of Trade," or relative proportion to each other of a country's exports and imports, was a test in much vogue in the last century, when the advantages or disadvantages of external trade were to be estimated. Sounder notions of political economy have, to use an expressive French phrase, much "discredited" this test. The idea is exploded, that an import trade is bad for a country, merely because she pays in money for what she receives. Money has been recognized as to the full as much a "marketable commodity," as the "goods," or "produce," ordinarily so considered; and where importation has been found in any case really disadvantageous, it has been, because of some peculiarity in the quality, not because of the quantity, abstractedly speaking, of the articles received. Again a great exportation has been seen not to be, of necessity, a great benefit. On the contrary it has come sometimes to be considered a great evil—as in the case of export of commodities wanted by the population at home—or where a valuable return is not certain and immediate.

To come then to a proper judgment of the real commercial status of a country, the nature, as well as the quantity of her exports and imports must be enquired into; and their effects, generally, upon the condition of the inhabitants.

Our space limits us to a very brief and cursory examination

of these points.

We have seen in the article to which this is appended, how wretched was the commercial condition of Ireland before 1780; and some evidences have been recorded of her extraordinary advance subsequently. The rate of exchange was after 1780 steadily in her favor, in her dealings with England; (as recorded in the report of a committee of the imperial parliament in 1804, upon the currency, &c. &c. of Ireland.) The committee to which we refer, although an English committee of an English Parliament, did themselves confess the prosperity of Ireland after 1782. They, to be sure, ascribe that prosperity to the

mere fact of the establishment of the Bank of Ireland in 1783; but this inadequate cause for so great an effect, as the "rapid advances of trade, manufactures, and agriculture," which they speak of, (Report, page 12,) we need not delay to discuss; being satisfied with their confession of the fact of those advances.

The excess of the exports of Ireland, over what she received in return from England, (namely, as more than two to one, see Foster, debate in committee, 1799,) would of itself be enough to demonstrate the activity of her manufactures—her export of unmanufactured produce being comparatively nothing, and her home-consumption being, in a very great over-proportion, sup-

plied by herself.

Comparisons will best shew the state of her home-consumption of those foreign articles, whose use is generally taken as the scale by which to estimate the degree of prosperity of a people. The following comparisons are not only the quantities consumed in Ireland at periods before and after the Union—but between those quantities and what were consumed in England at corresponding periods. The figures verifying them in detail will be found in the report of the committee of 1830, on the "State of the Irish Poor,"—Mr. Spring Rice, the present Lord Monteagle, chairman—(see Appendices, G. 1, and G. 2. pp. 112—125, No. 667 of 1830 Reports.)

'Period from 1785 to the Union:	
Tea-Increase of consumption in Ireland, 84 per	cent.
in England 45	do.
From 1786 to the Union.	
Tobacco—Increase in Ireland, 100	do.
in England, 64	do.
From 1787 to the Union.	
Wine—Increase in Ireland, 74	do.
in England 22	do.
From 1785 to the Union.	
Sugar—Increase in Ireland, 57	do.
in England, 53	do.
From 1784 to the Union.	
Coffee—Increase in Ireland, 600	do.
in England, 75	do.
"Period from the Union to the year 1827 :	
The state of the s	
Tea—Increase in England, 25 per	
in Ireland, - 24 per	cent.

Coffee-Increase in England. - 1,800 per cent. in Ireland, 400 per cent. Sugar-Increase in England, 26 per cent. in Ireland, 16 per cent. Tobacco-Increase in England -27 per cent. Decrease in Ireland, -37 per cent. 24 per cent. Wine—Increase in England, Decrease in Ireland, 45 per cent.

As to all these items, the latest official information is of the year 1825—the records of trade between the two countries having ceased to be kept in that year; and by far the greater part of the commodities enumerated coming to us through England.

We have, in the preceding Addendum, shewn the progress of the linen trade in the period of legislative independence, as advantageously contrasted with the preceding and subsequent

periods.

The defenders of the Union ordinarily lay much stress on the increased export of cattle, sheep, and provisions, since that measure. This export, however, is from a starving people; and being so, the argument as to its great value to Ireland is not one to waste much time in considering. A curious fact has come out with reference to this subject. A return appeared in all the Dublin papers, in November, 1842, of the number of sheep and horned cattle at the great Fair at Ballinasloe, every year from 1790 to 1842. A statement of the number for the year 1843 appeared in the papers last November. The following figures, thus obtained, we put in the same table, with figures from a Parliamentary Return of 1834, and the Irish Railway Report, shewing the export of the articles mentioned in two of the years included. We have no return of the export last year.

Years.	Sheep.	Export of Ditto.	Horned Cattle.	Export of Ditto.
1799 1835 1843	77,900 62,400 62,726	800 125,000	9,900 8,500 8,815	14,000 98,000

The question naturally arises—what became of the 77,000 surplus sheep in the first year, as well as the sheep at the other fairs?—They were eaten at home.

As to oxen, 14,000 went away in 1799, and 98,000 in 1835;

yet if we test the product of all Ireland in the former year, by the most sufficient criterion of the amount at Ballinasloe Fair, we shall find that Ireland had then more for sale than in 1835, and consumed the greater part of the surplus over her export—exporting the remainder in the more valuable form of provisions.

The parliamentary documents quoted before, enable us to shew what the export of provisions was in the years 1799

and 1835.

Year.	Export of Cattle.	Swine.	Beef and Pork, Barrels.
1799	14,000	4,000	278,000
1835	98,000	76,000	140,000

There has then been since the Union, a decrease of the more valuable exports, (viz. provisions—valuable because of the labour employed at home in their manufacture,)—and an increase of the less valuable, viz. the live animals—less valuable to a country as an article of export, by reason of the small quantity of employment which is given in the preparing of it.

As the diminution of the number of barrels of beef and pork will not, by any means, account for the great increase of the live export—while the whole number of cattle produced in Ireland in 1835, was, at any rate, not greater than in 1799—it follows, that much of the excess of live export in 1835, must have been by deduction from the number previously consumed at home—and therefore, that the home-consumers in the latter year, were considerably less than in the year before the Union, notwithstanding the cent. per cent. increase of population.

But it may be said, that the market of the Irish cattle and provisions was probably "a forced one" before the Union. So far, however, was this from being the case, that there were actually duties on their export; yet so active and profitable was the home-demand, that not only was there no complaint from parties in that trade, but on being offered by Mr. Foster, when Chancellor of the Exchequer, to have the exports made free, those parties actually declined the offer.

The war could not be said to have forced the demand in 1789; for in the years 1787, 1788, and 1789, there was no war, and the average export of those years was 227,564 barrels—on which the amount given above for 1799, was no more than a

natural and moderate increase.

Since the Union, the home-market for these commodities has become extremely limited; and what advantage was gained by the extended market in England is now passing away. tariff-reform of last session was one severe blow to our Irish monopoly, as it was called, of supplying the English market in these respects. A strange monopoly! which amounted to no more than the privilege of sending over cattle and provisions, at of course heavy charges for freight, &c., &c., to compete in the English market with the same articles of native produce. competition of course prevented the Irish dealer from charging his expenses in his prices, and therefore his profits were considerably reduced from what they would have been had the socalled "monopoly" really existed. In fact he but supplied the gap that the Englishman or Scotchman could not help leaving The measure of the session before last tends to narrow open. his market still more—and last year these interests received another heavy blow by the most unexpected reduction of the government contracts, from 26,000 tierces of beef and pork last year, to no more than 1,200 tierces!

Mr. Foster in 1799 said, that "Ireland exported no unmanufactured wool; it worked up all it had, and there was little reason to suppose the quantity would be enlarged, as the great increase of agriculture and of the linen manufacture, gave a

better profit in the land, than sheep afforded."

Ireland has, since the Union, ceased for several years to work up all, or a considerable portion of her own wool. She exports the greater part of it now—and exports it in a way the least profitable to her, namely, on the back of the live animal.

The following extract from a speech by a high conservative authority, was read by Mr. O'Connell, when opening the Repeal Debate in the Dublin Corporation, on the 28th of February, 1843. It bears on the general state of Irish commerce since the Union.

"I am now about to read you an extract from a speech pronounced by the late Rev. Doctor Boyton, on Saturday, the 23rd

of February, 1833:—

"'The exports and imports, as far as they are a test of a decay of profitable occupation—so far as the exports and imports are supplied from the parliamentary returns—exhibit extraordinary evidences of the condition of the labouring classes. The importation of flax-seed (an evidence of the extent of a most important source of employment) was—in 1790, 339,745 barrels;

1800, 327,621 barrels; 1830, 168,458 barrels. The importation of silk, raw and thrown, was—in 1790, 92,091lbs.; 1800, 79,060lbs.; 1830, 3,190lbs. Of unwrought iron, in 1790, 2,971 tons; in 1800, 10,241 tons; in 1830, 871 tons. Formerly we spun all our own woollen and worsted yarn. We imported in 1790, only 2,294lbs.; in 1800, 1,880lbs.; in 1826, 662,750lbs. An enormous increase. There were, I understand, upwards of thirty persons engaged in the woollen trade in Dublin, who have become bankrupts since 1821. There has been, doubtless, an increase in the exports of cottons. The exports were—in 1800, 9,147 yards; 1826–7, 793,873. The exports of cotton from Great Britain were—in 1829, 402,517,196 yards, value, £12,516,247, which will give the value of our cotton exports at something less than a quarter of a million—poor substitute for our lineus, which in the province of Ulster alone exceeded in value two millions two hundred thousand pounds."

In the first edition of this work, we here quoted at considerable length, Mr. Alderman Staunton's admirable and overwhelming answers to Montgomery Martin and other hired advocates of the Union, on the subject of the comparative pros-

perity of Ireland before and since the Union.*

Admirable and convincing as Mr. Staunton's arguments and statements are, we feel indisposed to give the same space to them in this edition:—First, as that indefatigable labourer in the service of Ireland has since published them in a detailed and distinct form himself; and second, as the Irish Repealers will never again condescend to delay the argument for their national rights with long discussions upon anything but the great principles of justice and the constitution.

The following are extracts from a speech of Mr. Staunton's,

in Conciliation Hall, December, 1843:-

"Not satisfied with the general allegation that Ireland was in decay for eighteen years before the Union, Mr. Martin professes to give the details demonstrating the fact, and he takes them from the table of exports. What are these details? Certain items, fifteen in number, showing a trifling decline. There are two sides to an account, but Mr. Martin was satisfied with

In 1842 and 1843 the government engaged him to trump up a statistical pamphlet AGAINST Repeal: and he has since been rewarded with the trea-

surership of the island of Hong Kong.

^{*} The individual we allude to is the Author of the "History of the British Colonies." In 1833 or 1834 he was proprietor and editor of a London newspaper of some three weeks' publication and life, entitled the "Repealer," and advocating the Repeal of the Union violently.

one, and therefore he omitted every insertion in the catalogue showing increase. He omitted in his table of Irish exports linen, bacon, beef, butter, oats, candles, &c. And even in playing off a great fraud he managed to commit a minor one, for instead of beginning, as he ought to have done, at 1782, and ending at 1800, for the sake of a petty advantage he began at 1785, and closed at 1798. Now, taking in the whole transactions, even within this limited period, there appears to be an increase instead of a deficit, of £3,536,000. But, taking the account in the fairest way, that is, contrasting the five years ending in 1782 with the five years ended in 1800, the increase reaches to £7,000,000. In the first period the aggregate of the exports in round numbers was ... £15,000,000. In the second period ... 22,000,000

Being an increase of £7,000,000

"There was another minor fraud quite characteristic: there is a fluctuation in all commercial transactions: receipts will be in some years more and in others less. Mr. Martin looked into the sugar, wine, and tobacco tables, and seeing this, he took his amounts from the records of the years most favouring his argument. His sugar account takes in periods of three years, beginning in 1789 and ending in 1794; his wine account carries the last year to 1796, and his tobacco account only comprehends two years—the first 1794, and the second 1796. By this device he is able to show his favourite "decline in all items." It seems, however, that if he took four years ended 1782, and four years ended 1800, as he ought to have done, there would be an increase under all heads, and it would be of the following magnitude:—sugar, 361,000 cwts.; wine, 1,207,000 gallons; and tobacco, 12,800,000lbs.

"One of the illustrations of gigantic advancement afterwards relates to Dublin, which it will be new to us all to hear to be flourishing. It seems there were 3,213 houses built in Dublin since the Union. This proves my case, says Mr. Martin. He has not been told, or if he had, he suppresses the fact, that many more houses than this are insolvent or falling into ruins. Mr. Thomas Ellis, member of Parliament for Dublin, delivered the following statement of house insolvencies to a parliamentary

committee in 1822:-

HOUSES INSOLVENT IN DUBLIN.

1815					••	880
1816				• • •	•••	1,072
1817		•••	• • •		• • •	1,588
1818			•••	• • •	• • •	2,397
1819	••		••	• • •	• • •	3,206
1820	•••		•••		• • •	3,989
1821			•••		• • •	4,719

"This rather exceeds the number of the new houses. The fact is, that to this instant houses are dropping into insolvency and ruin in Dublin, and there are districts in which some once valuable and excellent residences are let for the amount of the taxes (cries of hear, hear). I see it boasted that the houses have increased throughout Ireland since the Union. Has not population doubled during the interval? He undertakes to show progress in ship-building, but he comes down only to 1830. After that, he says, there were 'no returns.' There were returns, but as there was a decline after 1830 he gets rid of the acknowledgment by asserting, that after that all is a blank in the public records (hear, hear). He contrasts the customs' receipts of Dublin in 1841 with the receipts of 1829. Why take these years specially? Because 1841 had the advantage over 1829 of the sugar duties, which were paid in England in 1829, but in Ireland in 1841.

"Another great agent in the deception which is practised, and it is scarcely less operative than the former, is tonnage (hear). Tonnage is the capacity of ships to carry cargoes, and it is reckoned, whatever may be the bulk or value of their cargoes. If ships carry blocks of stone, coals, even the mud of a river, tonnage is reckoned. One would think it ought to be taken cautiously in inquiries such as we are engaged in, but I would beg the meeting to attend for a moment to a passage referable to it, in the 'Memoirs of the Union, by a Catholic.' words are the following:- 'The population of London, as compared to Dublin, is supposed to be nearly as 8 to 1; the registered steam tonnage is only about $4\frac{1}{2}$ to 1. We have the steam tonnage of Dublin exceeding that of Glasgow, more than doubling that of Liverpool, more than three times that of Bristol or Hull, and nearly equalling that of Liverpool, Bristol, and Hull, combined. We have also the small town of Londonderry with a steam tonnage, of 2,663 tons, more than one-half that of Liverpool, and nearly equalling Bristol or Hull.' (Memoir

of the Union, p. 74.) [While Mr. Staunton was reading this passage, there were several bursts of laughter. I am glad to collect from you that laughter is the best answer to this statement of the 'Irish Catholic' in the 'Memoir of the Union.' Think of London being only four and a half times above Dublin in shipping, though it has eight times the superiority in population! (hear, hear). Think, again, of Dublin exceeding Glasgow, and more than doubling Liverpool, and surpassing Bristol or Hull in a threefold degree (laughter). Above all, think of Londonderry, which is more than half Liverpool, and nearly equal to Bristol or Hull (loud laughter). This, however, is only in registered steam tonnage: then we may conclude that this tonnage is of little reckoning (hear, hear). Not thus, thinks the 'Irish Catholic,' for whatever the registered steam tonnage is, he says you may charge four times the amount against the country. Not thus thinks Montgomery Martin, who, as becomes him, is not satisfied with multiplying steam tonnage by 4, but by 10 (laughter and cheers). My notion, however, is that instead of adding to steam tonnage, we ought to substract greatly from it. A steamer sometimes carries mail bags, at other times bags and passengers, to spend money in England; at other times half cargoes, at other times quarter and one-tenth cargoes, and the tonnage has one reckoning all the while (hear, hear). The steamers sail at stated times, whatever may be their cargoes. This remarkable thing is to be said of tonnage, that the ships which entered the Irish ports in the last year were represented to be 18,000, while the ships which entered the British ports were only 35,000. Hence you would infer that Ireland had more than half the shipping transactions of Great Britain, though, if you look to registry, we are to Great Britain as only 1 to 14, and if you look to building, we are only as 1 to 50 (hear, hear). But a more extraordinary thing still is, that though 18,000 vessels entered our ports last year, only 9,700 left them (hear, hear). What became of the other 8,300? Did they remain in our ports? Not at all; they came with coals, and they carried away gold, and mud from the river Liffey."

The following are extracts from articles published by Mr. Staunton in his newspaper, on the same subject:—

"To remove cavil, however, on the one point, let (Mr. Martin says) attention be directed to the following table, in which quantities, instead of values are expressed, and then let ANY HONEST MAN say whether the assertion be correct, that Ireland

rapidly increased in prosperity during the few years that elapsed from 1782 to 1800, when 'England produced the Union, because she was becoming jealous of the increasing prosperity of Ireland,' because she could not tolerate the rapidly advancing prosperity of Ireland.

"Next to this follows a table of fifteen columns, and the result is anticipated by a heading, in which it has declared, that 'it shows a decrease on every item of exports.' The

items are the following:-

Wheat,	Rape,	Worsted yarn,
Barley,	Kelp,	Cows and oxen,
Meal,	Tallow,	Herrings,
Tongues,	Calf skins	Drapery,
Wool,	Linen yarn,	Colonial merchandize.

"We now beg to apprize the reader that we are about to expose a fraud—a downright, absolute, barefaced fraud—which we believe to be wholly unexplained. It is quite true, that under the 'items' selected, decrease is observable. But Mr. Martin's 'items' do not contain the whole catalogue. They do not include even some of the principal articles. They do not comprise any of the following:—

Hides,
Hogs,
Hogs' Lard,
Plain Linen,
Coloured Linen,
Linen and Cotton mixed,
Pork,
Soap,
Flax Seed.

"Mr. Martin gave his readers fifteen columns of figures, but he omitted nineteen, these comprising some of the principal articles, such as the great staple commodity, Linen. In his list of exports he absolutely excludes even Linen!!! Now he cannot plead negligence, forgetfulness, or inability to find out all the commodities he might be disposed to take into his calculations. All the columns of articles were before him—the

nineteen as well as the fifteen—and his process was simply that of skipping over every amount that would tell against his case!

""A decrease on every item of export." So proclaims Mr. Martin in the very heading of his fabricated tables. Now, what was the result on the whole of the transactions within the years to which he refers? He takes two periods of seven years each—one from 1785 to 1791, and the other from 1791 to 1798. The following will show the total produce of all exports within the time:—

		First Period.		Second Period.
1785		3,737,068	1792	 5,321,290
1786		3,957,843	1793	 4,995,406
1787	• •	4,238,333	1794	 4,639,301
1788		4,361,664	1795	 4,704,732
1789		4,103,349	1796	 5,013,283
1790		4,826,360	1797	 4,533,693
1791		4,863,426	1798	 4,316,592
	-	30,088,043		33,524,297 30,088,043
Bala	ınce in	favour of second	d period	 3,436,254

"Would the reader be prepared for any such result as this when he was first apprised of Mr. Martin's 'decrease on every item?'

"The two periods referred to were most favourable for the legerdemain as to 'decrease on every item,' and therefore they were selected for that reason. Our worthy economist did not venture upon any comparison of totals in these periods, because they would show how every one of his items of decrease were counterbalanced very decidedly by amounts of increase. However, he thought he could not well omit some general table of exports; but instead of going back to 1785 for his figures, he commences at 1790. He should of right have taken 1782 in the first instance, (or rather an average of years preceding it,) as the starting point—but why not, in making out his general table, begin again at his favourite '85? We have searched for a motive, and have found it in the fact, that if he went back even to '85 he would lose some of his fifteen items of decrease.

Instead of fifteen he would have only eleven. Taking, however, 1790 as a commencement, and comparing the next succeeding five years with the five years following them, (including one of rebellion,) he is able to give an item of general decrease. But his business was, not to contrast 1790 with 1799, but 1782 with 1800. This could best be done by a statement of the transactions of five years preceding both periods, and that, honestly made, let us see what case would be left to Mr. Montgomery Martin:—

Irish Expo	orts in 5 years,	Irish Exports in 5 years
endin	g 1782.	ending 1800.
1778	3,225,581	1796 5,013,283
1779	2,702,043	1797 4,533,693
1780	3,003,251	1798 4,316,592
1781	2,880,430	1799 4,455,339
1782	3,375,692	1800 3,903,841
	15,186,997	22,222,748
		15,186,997
Differe	nce in favour of th	the latter 5 years $\frac{1}{£7.035.751}$

"So much for Mr. Martin's 'decrease on every item.' We need not again point to the reader's notice how much the contrast is affected by the peculiar years in the latter interval. One of them was a period of actual insurrection—three were years, at least, of inquietude.

"We have seen what Mr. Martin has made of the illustrations derivable from exports. He next proceeds to articles of luxury imported, and to show that in them there was also a decrease, he gives tables relative to sugar, wine, and tobacco importations.

These tables are the following:-

	SUGAR.		Cwts.
1789-1790-1791	•••	•••	617,893
1792-1793-1794	•••	•••	567,215
	I	Decrease	50,678
	WINE.		Gals.
1789-1790-1791	***	• • •	4,195,454
1796-1797-1798	•••	• • •	3,069,606
	De	rcrease	1,125,848

TOBACCO.

		lbs.			lbs.
1794		9,426,211	1798		4,894,121
1795		9,426,211 7,874,409	1799	• • •	5,876,172
		17,300,620			
	Total	17,300,620	Γ	otal	10,770,293

"The reader sees here another change in the selection of years under every head. Why was this? On looking over the items in a long column of amounts, Mr. Martin saw that there were fluctuations, and he took his data in each case from that part of the column which best answered his purposes. The reader will better understand this when we take a few quantities from the sugar table given in Mr. Spring Rice's Appendix to the Poor Report of 1830:—

SUGAR ENTERED FOR HOME CONSUMPTION.

1789				191,748
1790			• •	211,977
1791	• •		• •	214,168
1792				161,302
1793				196,371
1794				209,642
1795				227,978
1796				182,668
1797				231,233
1798				228,838
1799		• •	• •	263,603
1800	• •			355,662

"The reader observes by a glance at this range of figures, that if in making his sugar contrast, Martin took any years but those which he adopted, the result would make against his eonclusion. In wine, he took the years 1796-7-8, and for his tobacco table he brought in 1795. If he did the like in his sugar table, he could make no exhibition of his favourite deficit. Why did he not go to 1799 in sugar as well as in exports? Because up to 1799 sugar importation was increasing. If he contrasted his three first years with the years 1797-8-9, the following would be the result:—

			Cwts.
1789-1790-1791			617,893
1797-1798-1799	• • •	• • •	723,674

INCREASE in the last period 105,781

This is the secret of Montgomery Martin's variation in the selection of his years! He wished to show a decrease "on

every item," at all hazards!

But if he had taken years indiscriminately within this narrow range, still he would be a deceiver. According to his own account, he is called upon to prove decrease, not in the years between 1789 and 1798, but between 1782 and 1800. Let us, under these three heads, make out a fair table, and see the result. We take our figures in two instances from Wakefield's comprehensive returns, because they enable us to go back to five years preceeding 1782. We take our figures in the third from Mr. Rice's compilation, because Wakefield's quantities are in tuns and not in gallons:—

	Cwts.			
1778 to 1782	•••	•••		723,701
1796 to 1800	•••	•••	•••	1,085,375
		Increase		361,674
	w	INE.		Gals.
1778 to 1782		• • •		5,454,882
1784 to 1788	•••	• • •		6,662,604
		Increase	••	1,207,722
	товае	cco.		lbs.
1778 to 1782	•••	•••		21,645,178
1796 to 1800	•••		•••	34,473,878
		Increase	• • •	12,828,700

[&]quot;Manufacture of Paper.—A two-penny increase in the manufacture of paper is adduced as a proof deserving of imperial consideration in an article of comparatively minor importance. Mr. Martin publishes a table including the years between 1833 and 1841, and he manages as usual, to give an apparent view of increase far above a small reality. At the bottom of his figures we have the surplus of 3,819,529 lbs., though comparing 1833 to 1841 the actual excess was 1,533,765lbs.

This excess was not more than any single manufacturer, by a most limited indulgence even of a retail or shop-keeping spirit of enterprize, might have created. The whole duty on paper in Ireland, in 1841, was only £26,000, being about the one twenty-third of the British duty; and it was not an amount of duty which exhibited an increase from 1833, as will be seen by the following table, compiled from the annual Finance Accounts:—

1833	•••	£28,000	1838		£22,000
1834		28,000	1839	•••	23,000
1835	•••	33,300	1840	•••	23,000
1836	•••	33,000	1841		26,000
1837	• • •	22,000			

"Mr. Martin omits 1836 in his table, for some good purpose, we suppose, though what it is we are unable to conjecture.

"STAMP REVENUE.—The increase in this revenue indicates, says Mr. Martin, 'extended commercial business.' He proceeds to show 'the increase on a few years.' Why not on many years, if he wished to deal fairly with the public? His 'few years' come down to 1814. Why not to the latest period of official records, 1843? Because in 1814 he was able to quote a larger receipt than he could do, even under the date of 1843, with the assistance of the new taxes. The receipts in three years ending 1814, were the following, according to his table:—

1812	•••	•••		 £613,000
1813	•••	•••	• • •	 627,000
1814				668,000

"Now, in the three years ending 1843, the receipts were:-

1841		(gross pro	duce)		£470,000
1842	•••	•••	•••	•••	462,000
1843					531.000

"Postage.—This is next introduced as a criterion of progress. The years compared are 1830 and 1836. It is stated that in every county (excluding Dublin) there had been an advance. Why exclude the metropolitan county? Because, says Mr. Martin, 'it is no test of internal communication!' What! has the centre of action no necessary communication with the extremities? The idea is preposterous, and it would have never entered into the stolid head even of Montgomery Martin,

if he had not ascertained that there was on the whole Post-office transactions (with which alone we have a concern in this inquiry), a decrease.

Post-Office Revenue, 1830 ... £284,000 Ditto ditto 1836 ... 276,000

"Newspapers.—There is a boast as to newspapers, and it is specially mentioned that 'Dublin, after London, is the only city in the United Kingdom that publishes a daily newspaper.' There were some time ago four daily papers in Dublin: there are now only two. The newspaper duty of Ireland in the last year, with its 8,000,000 of inhabitants, was only a trifle above the Scotch duty, while the advertisement duty was materially less. The whole Irish duty was not much more than the one-eleventh of the British duty, though it ought to have been the one-third.

"Insurances.—Mr. Martin gave a statement to show the increase of fire insurances on farming stock in Ireland. Formerly there might have been (and there was) a culpable indifference to precautions of this character; latterly they might have been rendered more necessary by the increased insecurity of property arising from the increased destitution of the people. However Mr. Martin gives increased fire insurances on farming stock as another test of the *prodigious* advancement of the country.

"PRESENTMENTS—In this respect he is still more comical. He shows the county cess has increased from, £874,000 to £1,116,000 in thirteen years; but his consoling commentary is, that it 'shows no impoverishment.' Increased charges for gaols, infirmaries, lunatic asylums, dispensaries, constabulary, but 'no impoverishment!"

For further valuable matter of this nature we refer the reader to Mr. Staunton's Prize Essay on Repeal.

The Report of the "Commissioners of Enquiry into the collection and management of the revenue arising in Ireland, &c. &c." (1822) cannot be read by an Irishman without feelings of melancholy. Although the Union, with all its drains from this country, had then been twenty-one years in operation, the effects of the impetus Irish enterprize had received during the eighteen years of her free parliament, had not entirely passed away; and

manufactures still remained, (though in a sickly state,) several of which have since totally departed from Ireland. The cotton manufacture was yet in a state to bear competition in some points with England, upon equal terms—woollen, silk, glass, cabinet-ware—the making of carriages, of hats, &c. &c. were all active businesses, and declared capable of much immediate prosperity, in the event of the recommendations of the commissioners being carried into effect. These recommendations went to abolish the "protecting duties" left by the Union; which was accordingly done by the British parliament—the advantage being at any rate certain to England herself, as the duties in question operated against her commodities under the above heads.

The result may be taken from the Reports of the Railway and Hand-Loom Weavers' Commissions of enquiry, 1838—1840:—

"The only town in Ireland in which the cotton manufacture is established to any extent, is Belfast; and it is represented as declining even there. With regard to the woollen trade a considerable diminution appears to have taken place since 1822..... Mr. W. Willans, of Dublin, the most extensive woollen manufacturer in Ireland, states that then there were forty-five manufacturers in and about Dublin; and the value of the cloth annually produced by them would, at the present prices, be £200,000. The value now manufactured may be about £90,000. The manufacture has also declined in Cork, Kilkenny, Moate, Carrickon-Suir; the value produced now in those districts being supposed not to amount to £20,000. The flannel trade of Wicklow Willans calculates that the consumption of woollens in Ireland does not exceed in annual value £1,400,000, being about 3s. 3d. per head on the population; whereas the total consumption of England cannot be less in value than from £18,000,000 to £20,000,000, which would amount to 20s. per head."—Railway Report, Ireland.

The silk trade is now confined to one fabric—the tabinets. There can be no doubt the trade in weaving whole silk is extinct, and that the manufactures of velvets, handkerchiefs, and ribbons, are reduced to a few looms."—Mr. Otway's Report, Hand-

Loom Enquiry.

Mr. Muggeridge (also of the hand-loom enquiry) corroborates what is given above respecting the cotton trade; and one of his

principal witnesses, Mr. Moncrief of Belfast, made the significant remark, that "if all the capital of all the manufacturers in Belfast was combined, it would not equal that employed by one

large establishment in England."

The glass manufacture is notoriously perishing, if not altogether gone. The Commission of 1822 reported ten large glass-houses in activity. The 20th Report of the Commissioners of Excise Inquiry, shewed that the number had fallen to six, and since then it has been further reduced one-half. The hat manufacture, &c., &c., have similarly gone down.

The tradesmen of Dublin have, from time to time, put forward statistics of painful interest, connected with the condition of their various trades in 1800 and since. In 1834 they did so to a considerable extent, but still more fully in the last three years. A statement of theirs in the year 1841, has the fol-

lowing :-

WOOLLEN TRADE IN DUBLIN.

11 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0			
Master Manufacturers in 1800, -	-		91
Do. in 1840,	_		12
Number of hands employed in 1800	-		4,938
Do. in 1840,	_		682
,			
WOOL COMBIN	vG.		
Master wool combers in 1800, -	_		30
Do. in 1834,	-		5
Number of hands employed in 1800	-		230
Do. in 1834,	-		66
CARPET MANUFACTURE	IN DUBI	IN.	
Master manufacturers in 1800,	-		13
Do. in 1841,			1
Number of hands employed in 1800,	-		720
Do. in 1841, only the men employed	by Mr. S	Sheridan.	
BLANKETS.			
Blanket manufacturers in Kilkenny, i	in the ye	ar 1800,	
Do. in 1822,	-		12
Operatives employed in 1800,	-	- 49	-,
Do. in 1841,	-	- "	925

RATTEENS AND FRIEZES.

Number of persons supported by the woollen manufacture at Roscrea in the year 1800,	900
Persons deriving employment and maintenance from the cotton manufacture at Belfast, and within ten miles round it, in the year 1800, Do. in 1839, 2 12,000 to 1	7,000 5,000
whose wages were miserably reduced, almost to the standard of a day labourer. Number of calico looms at full work at Balbriggan in 1799,	2,000
Do. in 1841,	226
	2,500 250
HOSIERY.	
In Dublin the number of hosiery frames was, in 1800, Do. in 1840,	329 80
In Cork the number of hosiery frames was, in 1800, - Do. in 1840, say	$\frac{200}{12}$
The hosiery trade has become almost extinct at Belfast, Lisburn, Clonmel, Limerick, Waterford, Carrick, Kil- kenny, Carlow, Portarlington, Maryborough, Newry,	
Dundalk, Armagh, and Drogheda.	
STUFF SERGE IN DUBLIN.	
Master manufacturers in 1800, Do. in 1841,	25 1
	1,491 131
FLANNEL MANUFACTURE.	
Looms at work in the County Wicklow in the year 1800, Do. in 1841,	0!
trade.*	
* A Trade and Commerce Committee of the Association, for	which

^{*} A Trade and Commerce Committee of the Association, for which I moved early in the last year, received from the tradesmen a sad confirmation of the foregoing statements; with no variation, save where stating further decline and loss. Mr. Ray, at the request of the same Committee, has more than verified the accounts of decay of trade, &c., in the provincial towns.

When to all these statements, (which, if space and time permitted, could be easily increased in number, and equalled in force), we add the accumulated evidence and declarations by individual writers and royal commissioners, parliamentary committees and speakers, as to the appalling destitution of one-half of the population of Ireland, the assertion of "giant-stride prosperity since the Union" becomes a cruel insult! The assertion of any general prosperity is scarcely better. And where any particular interest can be shewn to have thriven to any degree of importance, such a result can in no way be rightfully ascribed to the operation of the Union, until it be first shewn that the same would not have occurred, had the Irish parliament been still in existence.

JOHN O'CONNELL.



APPENDIX, No. V.

"MEANS BY WHICH THE UNION WAS CARRIED."

On this subject we copy the following Report of the Committee of the National Association of Ireland, on the means by which the Union was carried.—(First Series of Repeal Reports, 1840):—

Your Committee deem it necessary to make a short preliminary statement with regard to the state of Ireland under her own Parliament.

The centuries of misrule and oppression—the shackles and restrictions which were laid upon Irish trade and commerce—and the baleful spirit of national antipathy and sordid tyranny, by which the English government had conducted the affairs of Ireland, produced their natural consequences in Ireland. The gentry were embarrassed or loaded with debts—their income small, their incumbrances great—domestic manufactures were crushed by direct violence on the part of the British government, and the extreme of misery pervaded all the labouring and poorer classes of the population.

Such was the state of Ireland, when the successful insurrection of the American colonies seemed to rouse her from the torpor produced by the faithless tyranny of our British rulers.

We call that tyranny faithless, because it was exercised in direct violation of the Treaty of Limerick—that treaty was a

solemn compact made between the Irish people in arms, and the King of England, William the Third, theretofore unrecog-

nized by the Irish people.

Upon the faith of that treaty, the Irish nation submitted to King William—they laid down their arms, relying upon British integrity; and in return for the constitutional rights which they stipulated for, they gave to the British crown the peaceable possession of this beautiful island, the fairest and most fertile portion of the European states. They received, in recompense, the plighted faith and honour of the British government, for the security and stability of the liberty of the Irish people.

Never was there more full value given for any stipulation or compact, than that given by the Irish army and people to the British crown on that occasion—but never, alas! was public faith and honour so basely, so vilely, so outrageously, so degradingly violated, as the British faith and honour were to the

Irish people!

This is part of history, and remains as a record of the most

dishonouring infamy to the British name and nation.

For near a century the hideous and sanguinary laws by which the treaty of Limerick was violated, filled Ireland with wo, with misery, with confiscation, with insecurity, with squalid wretchedness.

At length in 1778, Ireland roused herself from her death slumber. The repeal of the penal laws against the Catholics commenced; and the distress and danger in which England was involved by her contest with the American colonists, aided as they were by France and other continental powers, enabled the Irish people to extort for Ireland A FREE TRADE to all parts of the world, in spite of the desperate opposition of the British government.

Came the glorious era of 1782!—Ireland, in her strength and her virtue, asserted her Legislative Independence, and took her place for the first time amongst the nations of the

earth.

Prosperity unexampled in the annals of modern or ancient history followed her independence—prosperity, agricultural, manufacturing, and commercial.—No nation in Europe ever made such progress in so short a time as Ireland did, under the fostering care of her own legislature, from the time of her legislative independence in 1782, until she felt the effects of the measures taken to produce the legislative Union.

We think it would be impossible to deny, that this prosperity was viewed with a jealous eye by the English people and government. They were expressly charged with this jealousy by the opponents of the Union, and in particular by Bushe, the late Lord Chief Justice of the Queen's Bench, who expressly stated, that "THE UNION WAS THE DENIAL OF THE RIGHTS OF NATURE TO A GREAT NATION, FROM AN INTOLERANCE OF HER PROSPERITY."

So early as 1794, the project of the Union was broached, and apparently matured by the PITT cabinet—we have this distinctly stated in the public documents of the day. It was PITT's wish to carry the Union in a conciliatory manner, and Lord Fitzwilliam was sent over to Ireland shortly after, for that purpose.

Unhappily the truculent Beresford Party prevailed over the milder counsels of Pitt, and it was determined to effect the Union in a manner which should lay Ireland completely at the feet of England, and enable the British government to

dictate its own terms.

The opportunity to carry out this iniquitous project was soon attained; the spirit of republicanism engendered by the French revolution, spread through the nations of Europe. In Ireland it met a congenial soil, prepared by the grievances and oppressions of the British government—but the outrages against religion, and the attacks upon Christianity itself, of the French Jacobinical leaders, disgusted the Catholic people of Ireland, and naturally and justly terrified the Catholic clergy; and thus a great check was given to the spread of revolutionary doctrines amongst the Catholic mass of the population.

It was otherwise amongst the Presbyterians of Ulster—they had a natural tendency to republicanism, and they shewed themselves active partizans of their favourite doctrine. They framed and extended a treasonable system of organization—first, civil—and then assuming a military form, in secrecy, and with as much concealment of their real designs and internal organization as they could possibly assume. They might have been more formidable, but that an anti-Catholic antipathy prevented them from cordially uniting with the Catholic population, and thereby prevented their becoming as powerful as they otherwise might have been.

Such was the state of Ireland at the time it was determined

to carry the Union.

The means used were these—First—The spirit of revolu-TIONARY FURY WAS ENCOURAGED !--- THE REBELLIOUS DIS-POSITION WAS ACTUALLY FOSTERED, UNTIL IT WAS MADE TO EXPLODE!! AND BITTER RELIGIOUS DISSENSIONS WERE PRO-MOTED AMONGST ALL CLASSES OF THE PEOPLE!!!

For the truth of these allegations there are abundant proofs -they are to be found in the recollections of hundreds and thousands of us who remember these things which we sorrowfully witnessed—they are to be found in all the debates on the Union—in the accusations and appeals of the opponents to that measure—in the admissions and boastings of its advocates. But the most powerful evidence of the entire, is the Report of the Irish House of Lords, printed in the latter end of the

vear 1798.

By that report it appears that the revolutionary spirit and military organization of the United Irishmen commenced in Ulster—the focus was in the town of Belfast—it spread through the greatest number of the Protestants and Presbyterians, especially the latter, of that province. The superior officers had all their meetings in Ulster-amongst others the colonels met monthly, and gave in their reports of the strength and state of discipline of their various regiments-privacy was observed, of course, as much as possible—but one of the COLONELS WAS A SPY IN THE PAY OF THE TREASURY, and he regularly, after each meeting of colonels, made a report to the government of all their proceedings.

The Irish government could therefore at once have seized the entire staff of the rebellion—they could stay its progress, and crush its hopes, by arresting at once all its leaders—but they allowed it to run on and augment for about eleven months,

without interruption.

All this appears from the Report of the House of Lords,

above alluded to.

Why did the government allow the organizations to go on, and the colonels to continue their meetings for ten or eleven months without interruption? The answer is obvious-the government had an ulterior object in view, to attain which they thought any sacrifice of blood cheap-that object was-the UNION!!!

It is true, they speculated too dangerously—the like experiment will never be made again; they imagined that between the armed force which they then commanded, and the powerful auxiliary of the bigotry of the Northern rebels, they could

casily suppress the rebellion, when it became just ripe enough

to frighten the country into the Union.

But they almost fatally miscalculated. Wexford, without any previous organization, was driven into rebellion by the ferocity of an unhappy nobleman, Lord Kingsborough, and of his regiment of militia; and if any one other county had been roused to an exertion similar to that made by the men of Wexford, the rebellion would have been a revolution, and the intended Union would have been exchanged for an actual and perpetual separation.

Even the unforeseen excess to which the rebellion extended, was converted by the Unionists into further means for carrying the Union. The alarm and dismay became greater—the confusion more complete—the rancour of party spirit more virulent—Irishmen were rendered more incompetent to protect themselves—and thus their inherent rights were spoliated with ma-

lignant satisfaction and perfect facility.

On this subject also the powerful eloquence of Plunket was heard to denounce the crime, and to call for vengeance on the criminals. He accused the Government—we use his own words—"of fomenting the embers of a lingering Rebellion—of hallooing the Protestant against the Catholic, and the Catholic against the Protestant—of artfully keeping alive domestic dissensions, for the purposes of subjugation," in other words, carrying the UNION.

Secondly—The second means for carrying the Union were

"THE DEPRIVATION OF ALL LEGAL PROTECTION TO
LIBERTY OR LIFE—THE FAMILIAR USE OF TORTURE—THE
TRIALS BY COURTS-MARTIAL—THE FORCIBLE SUPPRESSION
OF PUBLIC MEETINGS—THE TOTAL STIFLING OF PUBLIC

OPINION-AND THE USE OF ARMED VIOLENCE."

All the time the Union was under discussion, the Habeas Corpus Act was suspended—no man could call one hour's

liberty his own.

All the time the Union was under discussion, COURTS-MARTIAL had unlimited power over life and limb. Bound by no definite form or charge, nor by any rule of evidence, the COURTS-MARTIAL threatened with DEATH those who should dare to resist the spoliation of their Birth-Rights.

There was no redress for the most cruel and tyrannical imprisonment. The persons of the King's Irish subjects were at the caprice of the King's ministers. The lives of the King's Irish subjects were at the sport and whim of the boys,

young and old, of the motley corps of English militia, Welsh mountaineers, Scotch fencibles, and Irish yeomanry. At such a moment as that, when the jails where cranmed with unaccused victims, and the scaffolds were reeking with the blood of untried wretches—at such a moment as that was it, that the British minister committed this act of Spoliation and Robbery, which enriched England but little, and made

Ireland poor indeed.

Besides the suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act, and the consequent insecurity to personal liberty—besides the existence of courts-martial, and the consequent insecurity of human life—besides all these, actual force was used—meetings of counties, duly convened to deliberate on the measure, were dispersed by military force. It was not at Maryborough or Clonmel alone that the military were called out, horse, foot, and artillery, to scatter—and they did scatter—meetings convened by the legal authorities, to expostulate, to petition against the Union. Force was a peculiar instrument to suppress all constitutional opposition.

Why should we dwell longer on this part of the subject, when in a single paragraph we have, in eloquent language, a masterly description, which easily supersedes any attempt of ours? Here are the words of Plunket, "I will be bold to say, that licentious and impious France, in all the unrestrained excesses that anarchy and atheism have given birth to, has not committed a more insidious act against her enemy, than is now attempted by the professed champion of civilized Europe, against Ireland—a friend and ally—even in the hour of her calamity and distress. At a moment when our country is filled with British troops—whilst the Habeas Corpus Act is suspended—whilst trials by courts-martial are carrying on in many parts of the kingdom-while the people are made to believe that they have no right to meet and to deliberate—and whilst the people are palsied by their fears—at the moment when we are distracted by internal dissensions-dissensions kept alive as the pretext of our subjugation, and the instrument of our future thraldom !!!-Such is the time in which the Union is proposed."

Thirdly—The Union was accomplished by the most open, base, and profligate Corruption that ever yet

STAINED THE ANNALS OF ANY COUNTRY.

The leading feature, after all, in the Union was, the daring profligacy of the corruption by which it was carried. It was

reduced into a regular system. It was avowed in the House. It was acted on every where. The minister set about purchasing votes—he opened office with full hands. The PEERAGE was part of his stock in trade, and he made some two scores of peers in exchange for UNION VOTES! The EPISCOPAL BENCH was brought into market, and ten or twelve bishopricks were trucked for UNION VOTES!! "The BENCH OF JUSTICE" became a commodity, and a chief-justice, and eight puisne judges and barons, ascended the bench, as the price of votes for the UNION!!! It would extend beyond our calculation to make out a list of the generals, and admirals, and colonels, and navy captains, and other naval and military promotions, which rewarded personal or kindred votes for the UNION.

The REVENUE departments have long too been the notorious merchandize of corruption. It is not surprising, therefore, that the board of excise and customs either conjointly or seperately, and the multifarious other fiscal offices, especially the legal offices, were filled to suffocation, as the rewards of Union

VOTES.

The price of a single vote was familiary known—it was 8,000*l*. in money, or a civil or military appointment to the value of 2,000*l*. per annum. They were simpletons who only took one of the three, the dexterous always managed to get at least two out of three; and it would not be difficult, perhaps, to mention the names of twelve, or even a score of members, who contrived to obtain the entire three—the 8000*l*., the civil appoint-

ment, and the military appointment.

Lord Castlereagh actually declared in the House of Commons, that he would carry the Union, though it might cost more than half a million in mere bribes. His words as reported by Grattan, were, "Half a million or more were expended some years ago to break an opposition—the same, or a greater sum, may be necessary now." Such was the open, the unblushing, the impudent effrontery of Lord Castlereagh; —Grattan added, he (Lord Castlereagh) "had said so in the most extensive sense of bribery and corruption. The threat was proceeded on, the peerage sold, the caitiffs of corruption were every where—in the lobby—in the street—on the steps—and at the doors of every parliamentary leader—offering title to some, offices to others, corruption to all."

The present Lord Chief Justice Bushe was more vehement in his exposure of the atrocious means used to carry the Union. He stated "that the basest corruption and artifice were ex-

erted to promote it; that all the worst passions of the human heart were entered into the service—and all the most depraved ingenuity of the human intellect was tortured to de-

vise new contrivances of fraud."

Such were the means by which the Union was carried. It was not a compact—it was not a bargain—it was the government, in the words of LORD PLUNKET, availing itself of the calamity and distress of Ireland, in a manner worse than impious and licentious France would have done to her bitterest enemy.

And yet, with all these resources of intimidation and corruption, the Union was DEFEATED in the first session in which it was brought forward; and it was proved then to be impossible to bribe a sufficient number of the members of the Irish House of Commons to vote away the independence of their

country.

Another plan was therefore adopted, after the defeat of the measure in 1799;—some thirty or forty of the Irish members, who could not be induced to sell their votes, made a species of compromise, by selling their seats to the government, and thus retired from parliament. The government thereupon filled those seats with Scotch and English officers, having no connection whatever with Ireland beyond their casual residence there with their regiments, and who having filled the seats so vacated, formed the actual majority by whom the Union was carried.

Besides all this, it is perfectly clear that the Irish parliament had no right whatsoever to vote away their country's indepen-

dence.

The King could not attach the allegiance of the Irish people to any foreign crown; to France, for example, or even to Hanover; and the Irish parliament had still less right to swamp the Irish constituencies and Irish representatives by Scotch or

English constituencies or representatives.

These opinions are not merely theoretical: and they rest upon much higher authority than that of your Committee. They are the language, and the distinctly pronounced judgment, of the most eminent men in the legal profession in Ireland. Saurin, who was afterwards for more than twenty years attorney-general in Ireland, declared that the House of Commons had no authority to pass the Act of Union. His words were "You may make the Union binding as a law, but you cannot make it obligatory on conscience. It will be obeyed as long as England is strong: but resistance to it

WILL BE IN THE ABSTRACT A DUTY: and the exhibition of that

resistance will be a mere question of prudence."

Such was the language of SAURIN, which he never denied, retracted, or qualified: on the contrary, he unequivocally pronounced the struggle to get rid of the Union, to be in the abstract "A DUTY."

Let it be remembered, that the man who preached this doctrine was afterwards offered, and refused, the office of Lord Chief Justice of Ireland; and was actually the attorney-general in Ireland for above twenty years; enjoying more of the confidence of the British government, than any other law officer ever did or ever will. He it was that declared the Union not to be obligatory on conscience; but, on the contrary, the resistance to it to be A DUTY.

Another more eminent lawyer still—one who has been since appointed to the office of Master of the Rolls in England, then elevated to the peerage, then made Chief Justice of the Common Pleas in Ireland; then made (and he now is) Lord High Chancellor of Ireland—Lord Plunket. This greatest of constitutional lawyers has left on imperishable record, his sentiments as to the legal effect of the Act of Union. Here is the solemn legal judgment of Lord Plunket on the competency

of Parliament to pass the Act of Union:-

"I, in the most express terms, deny the competency of Parliament to do this Act. I warn you, do not dare to lay your hands upon the constitution. I tell you, if, circumstanced as you are, you pass this Act, it will be a nullity, and that no man in Ireland will be bound to obey it. I make this assertion deliberately. I repeat it, and call on any man who hears me, to take down my words. You have not been elected for this purpose—you have been appointed to make laws, not legislatures. You are appointed to act under the constitution, not to destroy it. You are appointed to exercise the functions of legislators, and not to transfer them; and if you do so, your act is a dissolution of the government; you resolve society into its original elements, and no man in the land is bound to obey you."

After some pointed illustrations of the practical truth of this constitutional doctrine, this eminent lawyer went on to address the Irish House of Commons thus:—"Yourselves you may extinguish, but parliament you cannot extinguish! It is enthroned in the hearts of the people—it is enshrined in the sanctuary of the constitution—it is immortal as the island it

protects. As well might the frantic maniac hope that the act which destroys his miserable body, should extinguish his eternal soul. Again I therefore warn you,—do not dare to lay your hands on the constitution; it is above your power."

Such were the means by which the Union was carried, and such was the inherent radical effect, in point of law and of conscience, in that measure. It is right to see how this inherent vice in the creation of the Union—how the bad spirit in which it was proposed and carried, was exhibited by another eminent lawyer. We shall call on the public to listen to the opinion of Lord Chief Justice Bushe upon that subject—this is his language:—

"I see nothing in it (the Union) but one question—will you give up the country? I forget for a moment the unprincipled means by which the Union has been promoted: and I look on it simply as England reclaiming in a moment of our weakness, that dominion which we extorted from her in a moment of our virtue; a dominion which she uniformly abused, which invariably oppressed and impoverished us, and from the abolition of which we date all our prosperity."

He adds—

"The Union is a measure which goes to degrade the country, by saying it is unworthy to govern itself. It is the revival of the odious and absurd title of conquest. It is a renewal of the abominable distinction between mother country and colony, which lost America."

"It is the denial of the rights of nature to a great nation,

from an intolerance of its prosperity."

With this quotation we close our Report, hoping that the language of these eminent lawyers will sink deep into the re-

collection of the country.

The people of Ireland can, within the compass of this Report, behold the means by which the Union was carried; they can see the inherent defects in that measure; and if they have the Virtue their forefathers possessed, they will, by obeying the dictates of duty, restore to a great nation the rights of nature; of which she has been deprived from the basest of all motives—an intolerance of her prosperity.

DANIEL O'CONNELL,

April 30th, 1840.

Chairman of the Committee.

We conclude with two extracts from speeches of Lord Grey on the same subject. They were made in the British parliament in the year 1800:—

"If the parliament of Ireland was left to itself untempted, unawed, unintimidated, it would, without hesitation, have rejected the resolutions. There are 300 members in all, and 120 of these strenuously opposed the measure, amongst whom were two-thirds of the county members, the representatives of the City of Dublin, and almost all the towns which it is proposed shall send members to the imperial parliament; 162 voted in favour of the Union; of those 116 were placemen, some of whom were English generals on the staff, without a foot of ground in Ireland, and completely dependent upon government. reflect upon the acts which have been used since last session of the Irish parliament to pack a majority in the House of Commons. All persons holding offices under government, even the most intimate friends of the minister, if they hesitated to vote as directed, were stript of all their employments. Even this step was found ineffectual, and other arts were had recourse to, which, though I cannot name in this place, all will easily conjecture. A bill framed for preserving the purity of parliament was likewise abused, and no less than sixty-three seats were vacated by their holders having received nominal offices."

"Twenty-seven counties have petitioned against the measure (the Union). The petition from the County of Down is signed by upwards of 17,000 respectable independent men, and all the others are in a similar proportion. Dublin petitioned under the great seal of the city, and each of the corporations in it followed the example. Drogheda petitioned against the Union, and almost every other town in the kingdom in like manner testified its disapprobation. Those in favor of the measure, possessing great influence in the country, obtained a few counter-petitions; yet, though the petition from the county Down was signed by 17,000, the counter-petition was signed only by 415. Though there were 707,000 who had signed petitions against the measure, the total number of those who declared themselves in favor of it did not exceed 3,000, and many even of these only prayed that the measure might be discussed. If the facts I state are true—and I challenge any

man to falsify them—could a nation in more direct terms express its disapprobation of a political measure, than Ireland has of a Legislature Union with Great Britain? In fact, the nation is nearly unanimous, and this great majority is composed, not of fanatics, bigots, or Jacobins, but of the most respectable of every class in the community."

APPENDIX, No. VI.

"THE TAXATION INJUSTICE."

SECTION I.

CONTENTS.

Repeal Association Petition of 1842 against Fiscal Injustices of the Union, taken as the text of this article.—Castlereagh on the Principle of the Fiscal Arrangement.—Scotland's "Equivalent" at her Union.—Ireland none whatever.—Castlereagh on the Union Rates of Contribution.—Irish Lords against them.—Ditto, Mr. Speaker Foster.—Vesey Fitzgerald and Goulburn subsequently confessed them unjust.—Castlereagh's Pretences of Fiscal Relief to Ireland by the Union.—Foster's Answer.—Fallacy and Inconsistency of these Pretences.

The following Petition to the Imperial Parliament, on the subject of the grievous and unjust Taxation of Ireland since the Union, was unanimously adopted by the Loyal National Repeal Association of Ireland, on Monday, the 31st December, 1842:—

Par. 1.—" That by the Act of Legislative Union, Ireland was petition of protected from any liability on account of the national debt the Repeal Association of Great Britain previously contracted, and also from the against this raising of her taxation to the high standard then existing in injustice.

Great Britain, until the occurrence of the following contin-

gencies :--

2.—"First—that partly by the decrease of the said previous British debt, and partly by the increase of the Irish debt, the two debts should come to bear to each other in the proportion of two to fifteen; i. e. two parts for Ireland to fifteen parts for Great Britain.

3.—"Second—that the respective circumstances of the two

countries should admit of uniform taxation.

4.—"Your Petitioners complain that the first contingency was most unjustly held by the Imperial Parliament to have been attained in 1816, when the said proportion of the two debts had been arrived at solely by the enormous increase of the

Irish debt, and by no decrease of the British.

5.—"They further complain, that the second contingency was not taken into consideration at all, and, according to the confessions of the British ministry themselves, could not have existed; as the measure of subjecting Ireland to all the liabilities and taxation of Great Britain, was introduced with the strongest declarations of the poverty and approaching

insolvency of the former country.

6.—"That that measure—namely, the 56 George III. cap. 98, commonly called the Consolidation Act, was introduced under the strange pretext of relieving her from the theretofore excessive and exhausting demands upon her; but that while it nominally did so, it in reality utterly swept away and destroyed all species of protection, which she had hitherto possessed, from a further and monstrous increase of these de-

• mands; and that in consequence of it, she has, upon an average of twenty-six years since the passing of that pretended aet of relief, been made to pay more in proportion than she did before; and in addition, was by it, and still remains, mortgaged in every shilling and every acre for the whole of the enormous debt of Great Britain, as well that contracted

since, as that contracted before the Union.

7.—"That these injustices have not been compensated for in any way, but have been aggravated by what has been done in the way of relief of taxation since the Union—the relief accorded to Great Britain having been more than eighteen times the relief accorded to Ireland.

8.—" That of the taxes imposed since the Union, the share of

Ireland has been so high as one-eighth.

9.- "That Ireland is, on all hands, confessed to be a most im-

poverished country—that the absentee rents drain from her between four and five millions of money—that her own manufactures having nearly all perished, some millions more go away to purchase British manufactures;—that further exhausting drains are occasioned by the sending away of her surplus revenue to England, to be there applied in paying the interest of the British debt—the sums that she pays in British ports on foreign articles, which she has ceased to import direct—and even by, what in her anomalous condition is a loss to her, the consolidation in England of government offices, and the consequent removal from her of public establishments, the expenditure on account of which, was an object in her reduced and impoverished condition.

10.—"The your Petitioners are ready to prove these statements at the bar of your honorable House, or before a Committee, if you should please to institute an enquiry into their

truth.

11.—"That under all these circumstances your Petitioners submit, that Ireland is entitled to an immediate and extensive reduction of taxation; and therefore,

"Your Petitioners humbly pray, that your honorrable House will take steps to alter the financial arrangements between the two countries, in such a manner as shall relieve Ireland from the unjust and intolerable burthen of taxation to which she is at present subjected, and will grant such further and other relief as to your wisdom shall seem fit. And your Petitioners, as in duty bound, shall ever pray, &c., &c."

There is one over-sight in the foregoing. There were, in effect three contingencies expressed in the Act of Union, on the occurrence of which Ireland was to be made subject to all the liabilities and burthens of Great Britain. The first should rightly have been stated as in the event of liquidation of the two debts—a contingency however, that so far at least as England was concerned, was not for a moment considered within the bounds of probability. With this exception, the petition before given embodies the chief features of our case.

At the end of the Appendices, the Act of Union is given at full length; and the reader can satisfy himself as to the accuracy of the statements of the petition. The clauses referred to are the 2nd and 7th of the seventh article of the Act of Union.

The undeniably just grounds for the temporary protection stated in the 1st paragraph of the Petition, to have been given to Ireland at the Union, will be best gathered from the speech of Lord Castlereagh, 5th February, 1800:

Lord Castlereagh's exposition of the Union.

In respect to past expenses, Ireland was to have no concern whatever with the debt of Great Britain; but the two countries of the terms were to unite as to future expenses, on a strict measure of relative ability. He should have considered it a most valuable circumstance in this arrangement, if the countries could have been so completely incorporated as not to have had distinct revenues a part of the system of the Scotch Union, which had been felt to be of such importance, that a great effort was made to equalize the circumstances of the two countries for that purpose-England had a large debt-Scotland had none charged upon her revenues-an accurate calculation was made of the sum to be paid to Scotland, to justify her in accepting her share of the debt, and the sum was paid accordingly by England. The taxation of the two countries was accordingly fixed at the same scale, except in the article of land tax; which was fixed at a different ratio, because the land tax in England was imposed so unequally, that had Scotland paid in the same rate as the nominal land tax of England, she would really have been taxed much higher than her just proportion. He mentioned this to shew the pains taken to incorporate the two countries; and lamented that the two circumstances of Great Britain and Ireland did not at present enable the measure of identity to be pursued with equal strictness...... Such, however, was the disproportion of the debts of the two kingdoms, that a common system was then impossible—nor could any system of equivalent, as in the case of Scotland, be applied for equalizing their contributions. It was therefore necessary that the debts of the two kingdoms should be kept distinct; and that, of course, their taxation should be separate and proportionate."—Speech of Lord Castlereagh, as printed in pamphlet form by J. Rea, 57, Exchequer-street, Dublin, 1800.

The disproportion of the two debts was thus stated by him a little later in the same speech:—

"The charges of the debt of Great Britain amount to His statement of £20,000,000 a-year; and the charges of the debt of Ireland to the debt £1,300,000, British, a-year."

This statement, however, included the redeemed debt, and the sinking fund charges. These, although veritable subsisting burthens, under the silly and pernicious sinking-fund system of Pitt, would, if here included, only serve further to complicate the already sufficiently intricate question with which we have to deal; the more especially as there is little particular notice of them in the public accounts with which we have to deal.

The sinking fund of Ireland at the Union, was, according to the testimony of Lord Castlereagh himself, in a far better condition than that of Great Britain; and, therefore, we cannot be supposed to be taking any advantage in omitting it here.

Making then the deductions of the redeemed debt and the sinking-fund, the following, according to a parliamentary paper of the 2nd session of 1819—numbered 35 of session 1819–20—was the state of the accounts of the two countries as to debt in the year 1800:—

GREAT BRITAIN, February, 1800.

Amended statement.

Funded Debt unredeemed.	Charge of same.	Unfunded Debt.	Charge of do.
£401,610,161	£15,451,684	£22,909,182	£1,119,888
Total Debt of both kinds Total Charge		£424,519 16,57	

IRELAND.

Funded Debt unredeemed.	Charge.	Unfunded Debt.	Charge.
£21,757,385	£959,698	£1,343,400	£69,573
	Debt of both kinds Charge,	1.020	

Remarks on the Scotch "equivalent."

Estimate of one for Ireland.

Scotland had no debt at the time of the Union, and the English debt at that time was something more than £20,500,000. For taking on herself a liability to this, Scotland got the sum of £398,085, under the denomination of an "equivalent." This sum was more than six times the amount of her whole customs and excise revenue at the period, viz., the year 1706, and bore the proportion of 1 to 50 to the above stated English debt. According to these proportions, Ireland's equivalent—had such been given her—at the Union, should have been something as follows:—

Her customs and excise revenue, 5th January, 1800, was, (according to Appendix, F 2, of the Report of Lord Monteagle's Committee of 1830, on the state of the	
Irish poor,)	£2,100,000
The proportion of $6\frac{1}{4}$ times their amount—being the proportion in the case of the Scotch equivalent, And, if the proportion to the English debt be taken—the surplus of English debt over and above Irish, having in	$\frac{6_{\frac{1}{4}}}{£13,125,000}$
1800 amounted to £401,418,558—one-fiftieth part of that amount would be,	£8,028,372
	£21,153,372
The mean of these two would have been the least possible sum to offer Ireland, viz	£10,576,686

Ircland, however, did not get even this most inadequate sum.* She was indeed, in appearance, saved exempt from

^{*} We are only exemplifying one of the thousand minor and collateral injustices of the Union and Consolidation Acts, in this instance. Although

England's Ante-Union liabilities; but, by an arrangement, the tyrannical injustice of which was poorly covered by disgraceful subterfuge and delusion, was irretrievably involved in fresh, most unjust, and crushing debt of her own; and advantage taken of this to declare and enact, within sixteen short years after the Union, that she had no longer ground, so far as great relative inferiority of debt was concerned, for any exemption; and that she was therefore to be deprived of all such exemption. gross injustice we shall, as we go on, fully lay before the reader.

As the difference of the debts at the Union, deprived Lord Castlereagh of the shadow of a pretext to warrant his subjecting Ireland to all the burthens of England, he had to fix her rate of contribution to the future imperial expenditure, at a much lower amount than that of Great Britain.

The arrangement was as follows:-The whole united revenue was to be considered as divided into seventeen parts; fifteen of which Great Britain was to make up, and two of which Ireland was to make up.

In order (said Lord Castlereagh in the speech from which Further we have before quoted) to find the sum which Ireland should exposition by Castlecontribute to the imperial expenditure, let the relative commer-reagh. cial wealth of both countries, and the relative expenses of both in articles of luxury, be examined; and if it be found that these two proportions very nearly coincide, it ought to be fairly pronounced, that the best means of judging of the relative ability of the countries had been discovered. Taking then the exports and imports for the last three years, those of Ireland would be found to be £10,925,000; and of Britain, £73,961,000; that is, in the proportion of seven to one.

these 10½ millions were withheld, with a shadow of reason in 1800, as Ireland was not immediately fixed with English debt; yet in 1816, when the injustice of her Union-rate of contribution was, as we shall shew, plainly avowed, she ought have been given the benefit of this sum, by useful expenditure on public works—as, roads to markets, piers, &c., &c.

The next part of the proportion was to be found in excised articles of consumption; such as malt, beer, spirits, wine, tea, The average of these for the last three years has been: Ireland, £5,954,000; Great Britain, £46,891,000; being in the proportion of $7\frac{7}{8}$ to one.

These two proportions coming so close, he would take 7½ to one, as the just ratio of the ability of Great Britain to that of

Ireland.

Against this estimate of the fiscal ability of Ireland, there was very considerable, but unfortunately, very useless reclamation. It was denounced as most unjust to her: and events have so proved it, beyond the possibility of contradiction.

Protests against the for Ireland's contribution

The Journals of the Irish House of Lords (vol. VIII. rate he fixed page 386) give a protest on the subject, which will be found along with other miscellanea at the end of this Appendix. The data it supplies are as follows:-

Balance of Trade in favour of Gre	at Bri	itaino	n her t	rade	
with the whole world		•••			£14,800,000
Ditto, Ireland on her whole trade,		•••			599,312
which give a proportion of 29 to	o 1.				
Current Cash in Great Britain,	•••	•••	•••		£43,000,950
Ditto, in Ireland,	• • •	•••	•••		3,500,000
which give a proportion of 12 t	ol.				

In another protest the following additional item is given :--

Permanent Taxes of Great Britain, on the 5th January, 1799, were £26,000,000—for Ireland, £2,000,000, or as 13 to 1.

The scale then was:—Balance of Trade, Current Cash, Permanent Taxes,	•••	•••	•••	29 to 1 12 to 1 13 to 1
Mean proportion that ought to have fixed the rate,				18 to 1

The Lords alluded to other points of comparison, or rather to points of considerable disparity, which undoubtedly ought to have been taken into account—such as

the influx of wealth into England from East and West India, and Irish absentee remittances; while Ireland was on the contrary drained:—the ease with which very large loans were to be had in Great Britain, while a recent attempt to raise only £1,500,000 in Ireland had failed, &c., &c.

It was well remarked by Mr. Speaker Foster and others, that in common decency there should have been a previous committee, or commission of enquiry, before calling on the representative body of Ireland, to pledge and bind their country to engagements of so intricate* and deeply important a nature.

Mr. Foster's remarks on the bases adopted by the minister, were as follows :-

The noble lord says he estimates the proportion on the joint Mr. Speaker grounds of commerce and consumption, but omits all internal the subject. commerce; which is much greater than the external. And even in the external he omits the tonnage of the shipping belonging to each kingdom, and rests solely on the value of the imports and exports, without regard to which country receives the profits of the carrying trade, though they constitute a material part of the value. And in consumption he omits the article of salt, which is one of very general use—the gross duties on it last year were £800,000 in Britain, and £90,000 in Ireland, or nearly nine to one. The stamp duties arising from exchange of property, litigation, and insurance, show in some sort the respective abilities—their gross amount in Great Britain last year was £2,000,000, (exclusive of post-horses, hair-powder licence, &c., not adopted here, or not affecting property in its transit,) and in Ireland only £137,000, or as fifteen to one. Yet these he has omitted. The post office also was adopted by many of his friends in England as a criterion for the growing wealth of Scotland; and I wonder at its escaping his attention. It produced last year in Britain, £874,300, in Ireland £80,000—about ten for Britain, to one for Ireland.

^{*} He might have said, "so designedly intricate," for such was the fact.

Mr. Foster did not state his calculation on these, having merely thrown them out as matters that ought to have been taken into account by the government.

It is, however, sufficiently clear from them, that the British rate, as proposed by Lord Castlereagh, was much too low, and the Irish much too high. But these facts have been admitted in the Imperial Parliament, and therefore need not be much longer dwelt upon here.

Subsequent confessions of this injustice.

The late Lord Fitzgerald and Vesci, was, when Chancellor of the Irish Exchequer in 1816, the mouth-piece of Lord Castlereagh's government, in proposing the consolidation of the exchequers, and in doing so, he thus denounced the injustice of the Union rate of contribution imposed upon Ireland, and its grievous effects upon her:-"I hope it will not be said that Ireland throws a great burden on the empire to save herself. Oh, no! The necessity of reviewing the act of Union has been caused by the sacrifices she has made, doing her best to keep pace with you. You contracted with her for an expenditure she could not meet. She had been led to hope that her expenditure would be less when united to you than before. She has absolutely paid more in taxes since the Union than seventy-eight millions, being forty-seven more than her revenue in the fifteen years on which her contribution was calculated." Thus the government itself, in 1816, confessed that the rate of contribution for Ireland was too high, and consequently that that for Great Britain was too low.

Other statements to the same general effect were made by other members, both English and Irish, and not contradicted by any. We need not delay upon them, when we have no less an authority to quote than that of Mr. Goulburn, the present Chancellor of the Exchequer. In 1822, when speaking to a motion of Sir J. Newport's, the Right Hon. Gentleman said: "The Union contribution of 2-17ths for Ireland, is now allowed on all hands to have been more than she was able to bear."

The injustice of the rate thus established, we shall presently go more into detail as to its effects and consequences to Ireland. Before doing so, the pretences under which it was recommended and advocated, deserve a little examination.

Having stated the principle (viz., the proportionate rates of contribution) of article 7, I shall now enumerate its provisions.

The 1st section provides, that the past debts of the two Deceitful kingdoms shall be borne by them respectively, and if we couple promises. this liberal provision with the 9th section, which gives Ireland a participation in whatever sums may be produced from the territorial revenues of the British dependencies in India, we must acknowledge not only the justice, but the generosity of the terms. Great Britain holds out a fair participation in all the advantages of the empire, without requiring the smallest participation in the burthens incurred to procure them; and Ireland will acquire £58,000, in ease of her own burthens, out of the revenues paid by the East India Company.

The reader will doubtless be at a loss to discover the great "liberality" of a provision, that Ireland, owing only 23 millions of debt, should not be called on for fiscal contributions equal to those of Great Britain, who was indebted to the amount of 424 millions. The merest and scantiest justice necessitated such a provision.

The "liberality" of the 9th section, is equally unsustainable. Mr. Foster thus spoke of it:—

This is a curious offer. £58,000 per annum from the East India Company, being our 2-17ths of £500,000 a year, which that Company covenanted to pay, when her new charter was granted in 1793—one penny of which I believe she has not yet paid, and a share of which we are in justice entitled to, without regard to Union; when we confirmed that charter the same year.

Mr. Foster was mistaken in saying that the East India Company had not paid something. They paid (as we see by appendix No. 13, to the 4th report on income and expenditure of the United Kingdom, No. 519, of 1828) half their stipulated contribution for each of the years 1793, 1794, 1796, and its full amount in 1797, making a total of £1,250,000, of which Ireland got nothing, although she was, as Mr. Foster said, most fully and rightly entitled to a portion—she having renewed their charter, as well as England—that is, having enacted restrictions on her own trade in their favour. He was only too correct in his prediction that Ireland would have to find a new tax of £58,000 to pay in advance for the promised post-Union contribution from the East India Company to the Irish revenue. In the sixteen years after the Union, up to the year in which the Consolidation Act (56 Geo. III. c. 98, that which put an end to all proportionate contribution, and thenceforward made debts and taxation common to both countries) came into force, viz., the year 1817, the Company contributed but £98,000, not the amount for two years of the promised payment to Ireland; nor did Ireland receive a portion of this amount, small as it was! The £58,000 contribution was to be a means for her of meeting her contingent to the imperial exchequer-she

was hindered of those means, by the tender consideration of the Lords of the Treasury for the East India Company, and consequently had no other way of providing that amount of her said contingent, than by "a new tax!"

The unparalleled audacity of assertion that throughout assertions. marked the advocacy of the Union, in the Irish Parliament at least, was in no instance more conspicuous than in that of the asserted "liberality and generosity" of the sections we are considering. We have seen that the promised "participation in the sums to be received from the East India Company" was, in fact, nothing more than what Ireland had acquired a right to, by her complaisance to that body in 1793. Let us examine was there more of substance in the assurance, that "the smallest participation in the burthens incurred to procure the imperial advantages" was "not required from Ireland."

In the first place, if Lord Castlereagh's words were Inconsisten-meant to convey the impression that she had not, up to that time, borne her part of them, his assertion was inconsistent with his subsequent endeavour (which we shall presently quote) to prove that Ireland, in consequence of her not being legislatively united with Great Britain, was then paying a million a-year in war contributions more than she otherwise would have done.

It was also most thoroughly inconsistent with the positions laid down and assented to in the British House of Lords, in the preceding year, by Lord Minto, when, in an attempt to recommend the legislative Union to Ireland, on the ground that her legislative independence was a mockery, and only served to hinder her from sharing the advantages of England, he thus represented her existing condition :-

Ireland, at present, must take her part in all the wars of Great Britain. She must bear her share of their burthens, and incur all their hazards. Yet she cannot, by the utmost success, acquire an acre of new territory to the Irish dominion. Every acquisition, however great her share in the danger and exertion to get it, accrues to Great Britain. An island taken by Irish regiments, and by ships manned by Irish seamen, is a British conquest, not an Irish. The Irish parliament has never asserted, or conceived, the right of legislating for any of the conquests of the King of England, although he is King of pendent country, could we do it better than by saving, it is a country which must contribute her quota to all the wars of a neighbouring kingdom-must incur all the risks of those wars and partake in all their disasters; while all that is acquired by their success falls, like the lion's share, to that country to which it claims to be co-ordinate and co-equal.I have thus demonstrated the real subordination of Ireland. Pride can fly only to one of two remedies-total and absolute separation, or a perfect, incorporating, and equalizing Union.

If addititional proofs were wanting, that Ireland had not shrunk from the imperial burthens, they can be collected from the strong expressions of thanks from successive Viceroys to our parliament, during the period of its independence, for its liberal and generous grants towards the exigencies of the state. In the text of the compilation to which the present article is one of the appendices, will be found several instances of what we mention; and a further strong proof in the heavy debt-liabilities incurred by Ireland during the last seven or eight years before the Union, in consequence of her assistance to England.

The thanks of the representatives of royalty would not have been so frequently and markedly expressed, had Ireland shewn a niggard disposition, in considering the exigencies of the empire.

Lord Minto, in the extract we have given, went the length of saving, that Ireland, from the necessity of her position, was compelled to bear, and had borne her share of the imperial burthens.

What future exemption the promise of Lord Castlereagh gave Ireland hope for, could not be understood as intended to continue after the period when the debts of the two countries should come to bear to each other the same proportions respectively, as the contributions were then fixed at. In the same speech it was declared, that on the occurrence of such a contingency, the exchequers, debts, &c. of the two countries were to be united; and thenceforth their contributions to be indiscriminate. was not however said in the same speech, but it was not the less then intended, and afterwards effected unflinchingly and unsparingly, by means of the unjust rate then imposed upon Ireland, that this contingency was to be made to occur as speedily as possible, and in a manner the most unjust towards Ireland! We proceed with Lord Castlereagh's proofs of the benefit to Ireland of his proposed rate :-

Great Britain has at length established the great principle of Lord Castlereagh's raising a great part of her supplies within the year. Ireland is attempt to not at present in a situation to adopt a similar system. Hence prove his plan a bene-Britain's debt will hereafter increase in a much less degree, fit to Ireland. and be more rapidly liquidated; while that of Ireland will be increasing with greater rapidity, especially if she continues separate:-

The expenses of Great Britain, for 1799,	£32,700,000
Ireland,	5,439,000
Had this been borne in the proportion of $7\frac{1}{2}$	
to 1, the expenditure by Great Britain	
would have been,	£33,695,101
And by Ireland,	4,492,680

 Ireland would consequently have saved, in

 British currency
 ...
 ...
 ...
 £947,314

 Irish money,
 ...
 ...
 ...
 1,020,181

So long, sir, as the war shall last, and we continue separate from Great Britain, our expenses cannot be reduced, and therefore we must, in future, expend more by £1,000,000 a-year, than if we were united.

As to times of peace, if we consider the advanced pay of the army, the increased charge of the militia, &c., &c., we shall find it impossible to maintain, if only 12,000 men at home, at a less charge than £1,500,000 per annum. And if we increase the establishment to 20,000, the whole charge would amount to £1,900,000 per annum. Now, sir, from the best documents I have been able to procure, it appears that the peace establishment of Great Britain is likely to be,

And of Ireland,

...

£7,500,000

£9,000,000

If this charge be borne as $7\frac{1}{2}$ to 1, there would be a saving to Ireland of £450,000 British; or nearly £500,000 Irish cur-

rency.

Now, sir, let us turn to the situation of the public revenues. The produce of all the taxes last year amounted nearly to £1,850,000; and the present charges of the debt alone, are nearly £1,400,000 Irish currency. I will, however, admit the revenues of this kingdom have, during the present year, experienced an extraordinary increase; but it is not possible to suppose that the whole of this increase can be permanent. Say the revenue produce permanently £2,300,000.

Our debt charge is, £1,400,000 Peace establishment, 1,500,000

Total expenses, £2,900,000

So that we shall have, if remaining separate, an annual deficiency of £600,000, which we must supply by new burthens on the people; besides additional taxes of £250,000, so long as the war continue. If, on the contrary, we wisely unite with Great Britain, the future charge of our war expense will be diminished a million a year; and we shall be able to support our peace expenditure with a very slight addition to the present taxes.

On this statement, Mr. Foster remarked as follows:

It is curious to observe the noble lord's arguments last year Mr. Foster's and now. Our growing wealth was then held out by him as refutation. tending to render us too difficult to be governed by our present constitution, and there was the greater hurry for taking away our parliament. Now our poverty is made the pretence—we must take the Union to save us from bankruptcy! We have not the means to go on. We have over-paid our due proportion of the war expense, by a million a-year; and of the peace expense by £500,000! We have almost ruined the kingdom by this profusion; and Britain, in proposing the measure, means to give us that million and half-million, and hereafter tax her-

self to pay it!

together

...

. . .

I own we have granted largely—we have not measured our grants by our means so much as by our zeal to uphold Great Britain; but are we for this to be punished, and our parliament transported, like a felon, for its extravagant efforts to maintain British connexion, by maintaining the cause of Britain? Did the noble lord sit by during the two last sessions—the most expensive we ever saw,—and not only see, but urge us, to give the supplies we gave, meaning at a future day to make our liberality, and these cordial effusions of our loyalty, so many arguments for taking away our parliament, and annihilating to believe he is in earnest, or that he means to load England, to save Ireland? And how is this "million" to be paid us?-In money? Are our past advances to be repaid? No! Taxes to be taken off?—No! He gives us calculation—nothing but calculation !..... I will go into his detail, and shew you the imposition.

He states the relative ability of the two countries to be as $7\frac{1}{2}$ to 1; stating peace expenses as $5\frac{3}{4}$ to 1, and war expenses as 9 to 1; and making the medium $7\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 (considering the proportions of years of peace and war in this century). This makes 2-17ths for Ireland to pay to future aggregate expenditure, and 15-17ths for England. I take this statement of last year's British expenses as ... £32,700,000 But I find no authority for this statement as to Ireland, so I take them for last year, although then unusually great. The report of the committee of accounts makes them ... 4,347,000 British money, or £4,709,254 Irish, making

...

£37,047,000

...

2-17ths whereof, being £4,358,470, would have been our share, had his Union been in force, which exceeds by a trifle the sum we did actually pay.

But he goes further, for he makes our war share which exceeds what we did pay, viz. ... £4,492,000

So his arrangement, which is to save us a million, would have cost £145,000

more to us—in Irish money £157,000 more—than we did pay.

Again, Britain in six years, up to 1799, increased her debt in the sum of £186,000,000; and Ireland, up to March in that year, increased hers £14,000,000, British (nearly). Total £200,000,000; whereof 2-17ths would have been £23,530,000 or Irish ... £25,500,000 But Ireland increased her debts (in Irish money)

only 15,092,000 So that, by not having a Union, she has escaped $\pounds 10,408,000$ This would have caused an increased average annual charge of £1,734,666, instead of the promised saving of £1,000,000 per annum!

Again, Great Britain, during those six years, has imposed permanent taxes of the nett amount of $7\frac{1}{2}$ millions a year, of which 2-17ths must have been raised by Ireland; making annually £882,352 British, or £955,881 Irish. And this is another way in which the generosity of the Union would have been shewn to us.

Further, she has, by temporary taxes on exports, imports, and income, (or by mortgaging them,) the amount of $11\frac{1}{2}$ millions a year, of which Ireland would have had to pay 2-17ths, or £1,352,940, British, making £1,465,685. Thus, had we been united in 1793, we should now owe 10 millions more debt, and pay annually £4,156,239 more than now.

Now for his peace establishment. He states it will be £1,500,000, although he confesses that the last was only £1,012.000.

He takes the produce of a year's taxes to 25th March, 1799, as £1,860,000, omitting the balances in the collector's hands, which were £257,822 more at the end than at the beginning of the year. This was part of the income of the year, and might have been had if called for. The whole then was £2,118,000. He estimates the permanent increase of the

revenue in 1800 as £450,000, forgetting the lotteries, which may be reckoned at a profit of about £70,000; making altogether an income of £2,638,000, which leaves for peace establishment, after paying the charges of the debt, viz. £1,400,000, at least £1,238,000, and this after a year of rebellion!

I have throughout taken his mode of calculation, in order to render comparison more easy, and for the same reason, have admitted his return of the debt at the total capital created, viz. seventeen millions, which the treasury states, instead of thirteen millions, which the accountant-general states, and which the committee of supply have voted as the whole due at Lady Day, 1799. And I have carried that principle through with him throughout all the calculations, because he preferred it; and they are made in British money.

As to the rate of contribution, war expenses are much larger than those of peace—at his own calculations nearly as $5\frac{1}{2}$ to 1—but really $4\frac{3}{4}$ to 1. Where then is the fairness of our paying 2-15ths instead of 2-20ths, when the expenses are £4,700,000 per annum, and making a saving in return where they were only £1,000,000, and are, at the utmost, but £1,500,000, particularly as there are but two years of saving,

or peace, calculated, for one of loss, or war.

The foregoing refutation, complete as it was, of the ministerial pretences, had, however, as little effect as everything else advanced by the friends of Ireland to abate the injustices with which she was then threatened, and which soon after were inexorably inflicted upon her.

It must be incontestably evident, that the rates should have been far other than they were. No doubt few matters could be more difficult of arrangement than a system of proportionate contributions; but that circumstance is, in itself, a sufficient proof of the impracticability of an EQUITABLE legislative Union.

Even had an approach been made to equity in the arrangement of the rates, it was against the nature of things to suppose, that the country which was to get the supreme legislative power, would long tolerate the exemptions of

the other (and defenceless) country—no matter how just those exemptions.

No object, worth the trouble and delay, could be gained by following out to a definite result in each case, (with the design of then endeavouring so to blend them, as to be able to deduce from the whole, if possible, some fair terms of proportion,) the various calculations advanced to rectify those of Lord Castlereagh. It is enough to say, generally, that they will be found to suggest proportions of somewhere about 17 to 1, instead of those of $7\frac{1}{2}$ to 1, which he dictated and carried.

SECTION II.

CONTENTS.

Design of the Consolidation, and thus the entire Subjection of Ireland to British Debt—Anxiety of the various Finance Committees between the Union and 1816, to bring about this object—Care to run Ireland into Debt, separate from that of England—Statement, in figures, of the comparative Increase up to 1817, of British and Irish Debt—Extraordinary Injustice in dealing with the Terms of the Union, that gave Ireland even a nominal Protection—Confessions by the Committee of 1815, and by British Ministers subsequently, of the excessive Taxation of Ireland—Outrageous Breach of the Union Act, advised by the Committee of 1815, and carried out—No substantial pretence to account for it—Suggestion of what ought to have been done in 1816, instead of the Consolidation of Exchequers.

WE proceed to examine the working of these latter rates.

Examination into the working, and results of Lord Castlereagh's rates.

Referring to the Act of Union, we find that the distinction of separate rates was to be done away with; and the two countries united in matters of finance, as strictly as in other matters—upon the occurrence of three, or more properly speaking, two contingencies; the second being of a double nature.

The first was, in case the debts of the two countries should both be liquidated.

The second was, in case they should come to bear to each other the same proportions that the arranged contributions of the two countries were to bear to each other, viz., as 2 to 15; and also, in case the respective circumstances of the two countries should appear to admit thenceforth of their contributing indiscriminately, by equal taxes on the same articles in each, to the future expenditure of the United Kingdom.

It cannot be necessary to dwell upon the first contingency, which the enormous amount of the debt of Great Britain rendered so very remotely, if at all, probable.

The second contingency will require a separate consideration of each of its two branches.

The first branch, viz. that the debts of the two countries should come to bear to each other the proportion of fifteen parts for Great Britain to two parts for Ireland, was thus treated of by Lord Castlereagh:-

Before this can take place, the taxes of Great Britain must Evidences of "malice be reduced by the amount of ten millions a-year...... prepense It may happen, however, that if war should continue, and Ireland fund happen, however, that if war should continue, and Ireland. land fund her supplies, while England raises a great part of hers within the year, and mortgages her income tax to their rapid reduction in time of peace, that the proportion of the debt of Ireland may rise.

Two other versions of his speech (one printed by Stockdale, 62, Abbey-street, and the other by Milliken, Grafton-street) give this part of it rather differently, making him appear to contemplate the decrease of British debt, as the sole means by which the required proportion of the two debts was to be brought about. The

version, however, (printed by Rea, 57, Exchequer-street,) from which we extract, appears much the fullest, and in its statistics generally the most accurate of the three.

It is a curious commentary upon the alleged "fairness" of the Union-terms, that the version of his speech which we have used, is certainly the most correct as to his statement regarding the contingency in question. Nothing would appear fairer than that the required proportion should have been brought about solely by the decrease of English debt, and nothing could be more justifiable than Mr. Foster's indignant remark upon the actual arrangement: "The monstrous absurdity," said he, (on the 15th March, 1800,) "that you would force down our throats is, that Ireland's increase of poverty, (as shewn by increase of debt,) and England's increase of wealth, (as shewn by diminution of debt.) are to bring them to an equality of condition, so as to be able to bear an equality of taxes. This is contrary to all reason."

He said perfectly true, but the arrangement was forced upon Ireland, in that shape, nevertheless.

This was bad enough, "but worse remained behind!" The required proportion was brought about solely by the INCREASE of the Irish Debt—no decrease whatsoever occurring in the British!

" Malice prepense" of the finance committees parliament.

Between the Union and the consolidation, various committees of the imperial parliament sat upon the subject of of the united the financial relations between the two countries. It is impossible to peruse the records of their proceedings without being struck by the evidences of one design, one intent, pervading them all, viz .- the design and the intent of hastening on the consolidation, without much regard to that part of the contingency that was expected to be in favour of Ireland. "Rem, rem, quocumque modo, rem!" seems to have been their motto. This animus

is distinctly visible in the proceedings of the committees of 1811, 12, and 13, preparatory, as it were, to its full, and entire, and final developement in the report of the committee of 1815.

The committee of the year 1811, actively assisted the increase of Irish debt, by recommending that "the payments since the Union, made to corporate bodies, or individuals, in Ireland, in respect of any city or borough which may have ceased to send members to parliament in consequence of the Union, should not be considered as a joint charge;" thereby throwing upon Ireland, directly and openly, the last remaining item of the extravagant purchase-money of her parliament: the other enormous item, viz.—the million and nearly a half expended in personal bribery, as well as the millions wasted in military expenses, having been quietly saddled upon her before. This last charge thus openly put down to her account, and unjustly too, (for surely the rest of the empire ought to have borne some share of cost of a measure which was asserted to be an advantage to the whole,)—amounted to nearly £1,300,000.

The other committees chiefly busied themselves with Avoidance calculations as to the proportions the debts of the two the real countries bore to each other, and a good deal of argument that of the is wasted in their reports upon what they affected to consider a great constitutional question—namely, whether the terms of the Union Act would allow of the consolidation being effected, if the actual moment of projection—the very instant when the debts came to bear to each other the required proportion of fifteen to two—were not seized upon for the purpose.

They affected great anxiety lest a question should be raised upon the practicability, legally speaking, of effecting the consolidation after the proportion had been obtained.

should that proportion chance to be *more* than obtained, viz.—should the Irish debt come to bear a higher proportion to the British than two to fifteen.

This earnestness was put on and assumed, to blind the public mind to their total neglect of examining into the real causes of the monstrous increase of Irish debt, and their total omission of considering the second branch of the contingency, without the existence of which the consolidation could not be legal, according to the Act of Union.

The committee of 1815 did, indeed, allude to this second condition; but, as it would seem, only to outrage it. They pursued the same mock perquisition into the self-suggested quibble of the other committees; and while they thus assumed, with regard to one point (at best quite beside the real question), such nicety of discrimination, they slurred over a consideration of the most vital importance,—that which was contained in the second condition of which we speak.

We shall presently have to refer more specially to the conduct of the committee of 1815.

Meantime this is the place to remark, that the flagitious means by which the required proportions of the two debts were brought about, had been plainly provided by the Act of Union.

And of the framers of the Union Act.

In the first place there was, as we have seen, a most disproportionately grievous rate of contribution imposed upon Ireland.

But this could never, unassisted, have swelled the debt of Ireland; on the contrary, it should, itself, have had to be repealed, when Ireland's inability to meet it became apparent—which was the case immediately after the Union.

The rate should, itself, have been repealed, because all future loans being to be borne according to the proportions of fifteen to two, any increase to the debt of Ireland, by reason of loans to supply the deficiency of the product of her taxation, would have necessitated a proportionate increase to the debt of Great Britain. The latter country, therefore, would have been made to feel practically, and year after year in an increasing ratio of severity, the grievousness of the rate that had been put upon the former.

To prevent this, and to make sure that the debt of Ire-Provision land should rise, the following artfully worded proviso was Ireland into introduced into the 6th section of the "financial" article Debt. (the 7th) of the Act of Union.

...... Provided, that if at any time, in raising the contributions hereby fixed for each country, parliament shall judge it fit to raise a greater proportion of such respective contributions in one country within the year than in the other, or to set apart a greater proportion of sinking fund for the liquidation of the whole, or any part of the loan raised on account of the other country; then such part of the said loan for the liquidation of which different provisions shall have been made for the respective countries, shall be kept distinct, and shall be borne by each respectively.".....

The means thus given were most unsparingly used. The annual finance accounts give the progressive details it is at present sufficient for us to state the general result. For this purpose we will give here the respective amounts Ruinous consequences to Ireland. of the debts of each country in 1801,* and on the 5th of January, 1817, together with the annual charge,—premising that the amounts in each case include unfunded as well as funded debt, and the statements of annual charge include the charge on both kinds.

GREAT BRITAIN.		IRELAND.		
	Debt•	An. Charge.	Debt.	An. Charge.
5th Jan. 1801.	£ 450,504,984	£ 17,718,851	£ 28,545,134	£ 1,244,463
5th Jan. 1817.	734,522,104	28,238,416	112,704,773	4,104,514

Par. Paper, 35 of 1819, (2nd Session.)

An increase of both debts, but chiefly of Irish.

The reader will remark, that there was no decrease at all of either debt, but an increase of both. It would have been very bad for Ireland even had her debt increased only in proportion with that of Great Britain. Still that proportionate increase would at least have saved her from being loaded (as she was by the consolidation of the exchequers) with all England's liabilities; for, of course, the disparity between the two debts would have remained as great as ever; and therefore there would have been no excuse for consolidation. But how cruel and monstrous the injustice, that not only was her debt increased, but while the British debt did not double, hers was increased four-fold.

It is no straining of an argument, but an inevitable conclusion from the premises laid down by the quotations we

^{*} Some pages further on, a note will be found in which we deny that the amounts for 1801 fairly represented the respective debts. We take them here, however, as the unjust means which the Union Act provided for inflaming the liability of Ireland, began their operation in 1801.

have given from Lord Fitzgerald and Mr. Goulburn, that as the means by which this excessive increase of Irish debt was created were unjust, that excess itself is unjust, and should by no means be considered as part of the rightful liabilities of Ireland.

No such consideration however was allowed to weigh in her favour, but the fact was taken abstractedly, that her debt had increased so as to be within the ratio of the contributions !

It would be well for the reader to pause here; and reflect whether this was not the plainest violation of justice. The intricacy of our subject will be lessened by such pauses: and the extraordinary facts of the case be all the stronger impressed upon the mind.

To proceed with our task.

We have already recorded the declaration made, and not controverted, in the British parliament, as to the great efforts of Ireland to do her part, after the Union, by taxation. It was on the failure of these efforts that the ruinous system of loans was resorted to. The finance committee of 1815, thus bore testimony to the efforts of Ireland:

"Your committee cannot but remark, that for several years Testimony Ireland has advanced in permanent taxation more rapidly than of the finance com-Great Britain herself, notwithstanding the immense exertions mittee of of the latter country, and including the extraordinary and war heavy burtaxes. The permanent revenue of Great Britain increased from thems of Ireland. 1801, when the amounts of both countries were first made to correspond, in the proportion of 161 to 10. The whole revenue of Britain (including war taxes), as 211 to 10, and the revenues of Ireland as 23 to 10."

Mr. Leslie Foster, the late Baron Foster, of the Irish bench, a member connected with government, followed Mr. Fitzgerald (whom we have before quoted), and imitated him in ascribing the bankrupt condition of Ireland

Other parliamentary testimonies.

to the oppressiveness of her rate of contribution. He thus described her increase of taxation, in her vain efforts to meet that rate: "The taxation of Ireland at the Union was £2,440,000; in 1810 it had risen to £4,280,000; in 1816 it was £5,760,000. In fact, taxation in that country had been carried almost to its ne plus ultra.

To these testimonies we shall add but one more—that of the late Lord Sydenham, when moving, on the 26th of March, 1830, for a committee for a revision of taxation:—

"A case is established in the instance of Ireland, which is written in characters too legible not to serve as a guide to future financiers,-one which ought to bring shame on the memory of its authors. The revenue of Ireland in 1807 was £4.378,000. Between that year and the conclusion of the war, taxes were successively imposed, which, according to the calculations of Chancellors of the Exchequer, were to produce £3,400,000, or to augment the revenue to £7,700,000. result was that in 1821, when that sum—less about £400,000 for taxes repealed-ought to have been paid into the exchequer, the whole revenue of Ireland amounted to only £3,844,000, being £533,000 less than in 1807, previous to one farthing of these additional taxes having been imposed. Here is an example to prove that an increase of taxation does not tend to produce a corresponding increase of revenue, but, on the contrary, an actual diminution."—Hansard's Debates.

Plain breach of the provi-Act of Union

The first branch of the second contingency under which sions of the "consolidation" was to take place, having been thus most in the case unjustly attained, it remains to be seen what was done contingency as regarded the second branch.

> This was in terms:—" And if it shall appear that the respective circumstances of the two countries will thenceforth admit of their contributing indiscriminately by equal taxes," &c., &c.

> This was not a condition alternative, but, in legal terms, a condition cumulative—that is to say, a condition addi

tional upon the preceding—and required with equal imperativeness. No possible ingenuity can maintain the position—nor has it ever been attempted—that this condition was not absolutely necessary, according to the plain wording of the act, and that without it the occurrence of the first-namely, the coming of the two debts into the required proportions—did not fulfil the legal requisites for the contingency that was to justify the measure of consolidating the exchequers of the two countries, and rendering both subject to the same liabilities.

It is scarcely credible to say—what however is the fact—that this condition was disregarded—or, what made the fact worse, was considered only to be outraged! The committee of 1815 thus dealt with the matter (p.p. 12, 13, Report of 1815, sess. number 214):—

"It remained then for your committee to consider, whether The breach or not the respective circumstances of the two countries would by the Comhenceforth admit of their contributing indiscriminately, by mittee of 1815.

equal taxes, &c. &c.

"It is well known that parliament has not hitherto deemed it expedient to extend to Ireland the most productive of the taxes imposed in Great Britain, for raising, by direct taxation, the supplies within the year. In other respects your committee have found the taxes of Ireland not fully equalized with those of Great Britain, particularly in the excise, where some important branches are protected from increase until 1820, by the act of Union, and in the stamps.

"But on the other great heads of revenue-customs and assessed taxes—they have found a very near approximation

between the rates of both countries."

[Here follows the remark we have before quoted from the same committee, on the excessive increase of the permanent taxation of Ireland.

"Under these circumstances it is manifest that no practical benefit can possibly be obtained, for any part of the united kingdom, by endeavouring to maintain a fixed proportion of expenditure, when that proportion has rapidly carried the debt of Ireland from a state of great relative inferiority into a growing excess, which cannot be met by any system of taxation that would not violate the most solemn engagements.

"Moreover, it appears to your committee, that from the whole tenor of the act of Union, and the very circumstance of the temporary guards to prevent the too sudden imposition of burdens on the weaker country, before time had been allowed for the acquisition of at least equivalent benefits, that a Union, strict and perfect in matters of finance,..... to the extent of consolidating the treasuries and the exchequers, must have been contemplated by the two treasuries.

"On the whole, then, with a view to the clear advantages of all parts of the empire—to relieving Ireland from a burden which experience has proved too great—and at the same time with the hope of rendering her resources more productive,......your committee have resolved,....

[Here follows their resolution, to the effect that the time was come for the consolidation of the exchequer.]

Without wasting time in general reflections on the evident "malice prepense" of the foregoing, let us come to its practical examination.

What ought to have been the remedy for the confessed evil.

In the first place we have additional and conclusive testimony as to the grievousness of the Union-rate of contribution imposed upon Ireland.

What would be the natural remedy for this—taking into consideration the admitted exhaustion of Ireland? Should it not have been to revise the rate—to alter it, to lower it, and thereby suit it better to the ability of Ireland—relieving her at the same time from the excess of debt into which its injustice had plunged her?

It was true, that the 2nd section of the 7th article of Union, provided that a revision of the rates was not to take place for 20 years; but even if justice did not require (upon other grounds, however, than the committee adopted) the period of revision to be anticipated, the committee themselves recommended what was, in effect, a breach of the provision in question.

In the second place, where were the proofs of this "ability" of Ireland? How was she shewn to have so improved, as that her "circumstances" should be considered to "admit of her contributing indiscriminately, by equal taxes" with England?

Of this, not only did they not attempt any proof, but, as the reader will have seen, they established the direct contrary, by declaring that Ireland's then existing burdens -much inferior as they were to England-had been "proved by experience to be too great."

be refuted, may be taken here to our argument. It may the forebe said, that in the extract we have given from the report of 1815, there is a clear allusion to the absence in Ireland, of taxes the most likely to be productive; and that the intent of the promoters of the consolidation was, by that measure, to annul, legally, the restrictions which the Union Act placed upon the imposition or increase in Ireland of rates upon some "important branches of taxation;" and when that was effected, that their further intention was, to compensate her by the repeal of certain more oppressive and less productive taxes at that time in force—thus bringing into play the clause which provided that, even after consolidation, there might be particular exemptions allowed in that country. To ascertain if this were done, or if the Refutation. materials existed for doing it, it requires only to examine the general state of the imposts of Ireland then and afterwards. Taxes upon the following productive articles were the same in both countries, viz. tea, sugar, tobacco, wine, coffee, cotton-yarn, and wool, raw and organzine silk, foreign bar-iron, timber, besides a multitude of others. While the committee were sitting, the Irish malt duties were assi-

milated to the British. The items we have given in italics are enumerated (with the addition of those of "spirits and

An objection, not very tenable at best, and most easy to Possible ob-

beer") in the 2nd section of the 7th article of Union, as furnishing, in their respective quotas of production, in Great Britain and Ireland, proper elements of a comparison on which any future revision of the rates of contribution was to be founded. The other articles we mention amply supply the place of "beer" and of "spirits," and enable us to take the list as (according to no less an authority than the act of Union itself) most sufficient basis for an estimate of "ability;" and so being, the duties upon them must necessarily be among the most important of the imperial imposts.

If then these duties were to be lightened off Ireland by the consolidation, some of the most productive of her taxes would have to be given up. The four articles alone, of wine, sugar, tea, and tobacco, produced £2,000,000, in the year 1814, in Ireland—being not very far from half her whole produce of taxation in that year.

The committee confessed that not only customs' duties, but assessed taxes, were as nearly similar as might be. In so far therefore as they were productive branches of the revenue, no change could be made, to *increase* their produce in Ireland: her taxes being of course restricted to an equality with those of England.

Stamps, and some branches of the excise, offered the only hope; and they are accordingly pointed at in the Report. Stamps, however, never gave much revenue in Ireland. That they were not much looked to, is clear from the fact that it was only in 1842, that they were equalized with the English. A trifling increase indeed was made upon them in the course of the year 1815, but the committee of that year, alluding to it as a then pending measure, treated it as little affecting the comparison between the taxes of the two countries. Other additions also of small produce were made in 1821 and 1823, and attempted in 1828:

Unproductiveness of Stamp Revenue. which latter attempt had to be given up, owing to the representations made to government of the ruin that would be caused by their infliction. And the result of the "assimilation" has realized the prediction of Mr. Alderman STAUNTON, (whose labours have been so eminently useful on these, and as on other subjects connected with Ireland's case,) when at the time the additions of 1842 were proposed, he foretold that they would raise the Irish stamp revenue little, if at all, beyond that of Scotland; notwithstanding the disparity of population.

The following are from the Finance accounts:-

Revenue of Stamps.	Year ended 5th January, 1842.*	Year ended 5th January, 1846.
England, Scotland, Ireland,	£6,480,000 570,000 470,000	£6,912,158 586,514 598,359

And this, when the additions in question were estimated to produce £630,000!

More than enough has, we trust, been put forward to shew that the stamp duties offered no chance for the "better arrangement," against the possibility of which we are just now contending.

Under the head of excise duties, the exemptions of Ire-Excise land were, "beer, bricks and tiles, candles, cider and perry, glass, (exclusive of bottles,) hops, printed calicoes, salt, soap, starch, stone bottles,—on which articles she had no internal duty—and auctions, glass bottles, hides and skins, licences, paper, spirits, and vinegar, on which her duties were not equal to the British.

The excise duty on beer was made to operate against our Irish porter imported into England, and the duty on

^{*} Viz.—the year 1841, that immediately preceding the new Irish stamp duties.

home spirits told most heavily against Irish whiskey similarly imported. Had England and Scotland been exempt from those duties, it would have been an immense advantage to the Irish brewer and distiller; and consequently their continuance was a great injury to those parties.

We got our hops from England, and the English grower had the duty remitted to him, by drawback on exportation to Ireland: -so that to have put duties on hops in Ireland would not have lightened the English burthens, while the hop growers of that country would have suffered from our diminished consumption. same as to soap, with the exception of two circumstances unfavourable to Ireland, viz: 1st-that not only had the English maker the benefit of the drawback of duty, but that he absolutely got a premium, inasmuch as in originally paying the duty he was remitted one-tenth of it for waste; while the drawback given him on exportation was of the full and unabated amount of the duty. 2ndthat he thereby was able to undersell the Irish manufacturer in his own market. In bricks, glass, and paper, as well as in several minor branches of excise, either the same system of drawback had been allowed upon the quantities exported (quantities which, in most cases, comprised the whole of the Irish consumption of those articles); or where no drawback existed, the result did not essentially differ, as the English exporter, lacking the reimbursement of the drawback, included the duty in his price to the Irish consumer, who, therefore, was and is the person who really paid and pays the duty upon the articles in question. Nay, it is certain that on some articles imported from England, we have to pay the whole or part of the excise duty originally imposed there, notwithstanding that such duty has been drawn back by the exporter. This is the case, for instance, as regards red bricks, on which the practice of the

Englishman is, to charge us the duty in the price; and with regard to fire-bricks, he does so to the amount of half the duty, although in both cases he has drawn back the entire amount from the government on exportation!

Since the consolidation, the following was the progress of excise assimilation. Paper duties assimilated in 1825 hides and skins at the same time-vinegar duties in 1826glass duties in 1828-and some minor points since, as auction duties, &c., &c.

We have perhaps wasted too much time in refuting so shallow an objection, as that we have just now answered. It might have been enough to refer generally and with confidence to the existing state of things, to prove that no such hindness as it suggests, was intended by the consolidation. But it is not without use to do away with all the specious pretexts advanced to justify the conduct of those who originated that most unjust measure.

Coming back from this digression, we resume the examination of the 1815 Committee's Report.

As we have before said, there is not the slightest attempt Resumption made to shew any increased ability of Ireland since the amination of Union; although the wording of the act can in no other tee's Report way be construed, save to mean that such increase was a of 1815. necessary incident, before consolidation of the exchequers.

The paragraph which speaks of the ultimate design of the framers of the Union, to carry out that Union in matters of finance, as well as in others, was but a mere cloud of words, declaring that of which no one entertained doubt, and seemingly intended to divert attention from the grave omissions in other parts. Were it any thing else stress would have been laid upon the "acquisition of equivalent benefits," of which it speaks. There is no attempt to assert that Ireland received such benefits; but the manner in which they are mentioned leads to the inference, that

what could not with any decency be openly advanced, was sought to be indirectly suggested, with some hope of causing a deceitful belief in the possibility of their existence.

The succeeding and last paragraph of our quotation exceeds all that went before it, in audacity of assertion.

False pretences. It states that the consolidation would be "a clear advantage to all parts of the empire;" without giving any grounds for the opinion, in the case of Ireland at any rate.

It talks of relieving Ireland from a burthen which "experience had proved too great," and concludes by recommending a measure which put an end to that previous protection she had enjoyed from greater burthens!

It speaks of "rendering her sources more productive;" but we have seen that the means of so doing could not exist under the proposed arrangement, so far as change without lessening the gross amount of taxation was concerned; and as to the repeal of taxation, we shall have, at a future stage, to shew how disproportionate this has been, as compared with the relief accorded to Great Britain; and may content ourselves for the present with remarking, that within a year from the time of the committee's report, no less than seventeen millions were struck off from the taxation of Great Britain; whereas ten years elapsed ere the relief to Ireland exceeded half a million!

The originators of the consolidation act took no account of the defenceless state in which they were about to place the country they pretended to relieve. Even were she really relieved by that measure, where was her guarantee for the duration of the relief? Whensoever the British parliament chose, they were thenceforth to have it in their power to re-impose old, or invent new burthens for Ireland, all limitation to her liabilities being done away with.

Even the distant hope given her by the fifth section of

the seventh article of the Union, that in the event of her resources becoming abundantly productive, her taxes might be lightened by the amount of surplus revenue thereby created, or that amount might be applied to local improvements, was now to be utterly destroyed, as she could never more have surplus revenue, until the whole of the enormous and monstrous debt of Great Britain should be liquidated; that debt, amongst other things, being "rendered common" by the consolidation act.

The reader is now referred back to the petition with Reference to which this article commences; and if he have followed our fore given, to shew its statements, he will see that we have established the propositions contained in the five first paragraphs of that petition.

Their necessary consequence is, that the consolidation act was a breach of the articles of Union.

What was done being thus unconstitutional, as well as What ought to have been unjust, it remains to be seen what ought to have been done done in 1816. in 1816. Our answer is, the unanimously condemned rates of contribution ought to have been altered; and Ireland should not only have her rate lowered, but she ought to have been relieved from the unjust excess of increase of her deht.

There was a difficulty indeed in the way of revision; inasmuch as the Act of Union ordained that twenty years should pass without revision, or any alteration, unless the contingencies under which consolidation was to be effected. should occur in the interval. But when a greater difficulty, viz., that of earrying the consolidation against the spirit and meaning of the Act of Union, was so little thought of, a less degree of boldness would have sufficed to get over that which we have mentioned. It was a plain and, only too probably, a wilful defect in the Union arrangements, that an earlier period for revision had not been provided.

However, if this difficulty were insurmountable, very little additional mischief to the empire would have resulted from letting matters go on as they were, until the regularly fixed period of revision had arrived, viz., the year 1820. The war with France was over, and the general expenditure had, even in the year 1815, diminished. The general expenditure for 1814 was £132,748,000. In 1815, it fell to £122,604,000, being a diminution of £10,144,000. In 1816 it again fell and was only £94,798,000, being £27,806,000 less than the preceding year; and in 1817 there was a further decrease of £26,000,000, the expenditure that year being only £68,710,000. After that year up to 1820, the expenditure remained about the same amount. From 1814. therefore, there was an aggregate decrease of £64,000,000; and from the period when the consolidation of the exchequers was debated, namely, just after the finance amounts for the year ending 5th January, 1816, had been presented, there was a nett decrease of £53,000,000. This would, of course, have lessened the amount of exactions from Ireland, although they still would have been most oppressive. But the fact is, a revision ought to have been specially enacted, under the extraordinary circumstances of the case.

SECTION III.

CONTENTS.

Consequences of the Consolidation Act considered—Its asserted purposes—How borne out?—Two professed boons to Ireland, viz., Relief from unjust rate of Contribution, and from the pressure of her accumulated Debt; but instead of real relief from either, she has been subjected to a liability of indiscriminate Contribution; operating whenever her Revenues admit of it; and being lightened only when there is an impossibility of paying: and this liability is permanent upon her, until the whole of the enormous Debt of Great Britain shall be paid off-Proofs of this.

WE now come to the consequences of the consolidation. Evil conse-It was professed to be a measure of relief to Ireland, then greating under grievous burthens. Let us see how far the dation Act of 1816. facts have borne out the profession.

By the provisions of this act, not only were the exchequers consolidated, but all arrangements as to proportionate contributions were done away with; and both countries were in future to contribute simply as much as they could, by equal taxes, so far as that equality was possible. Ireland therefore was nominally to be relieved of the rate which had been confessed oppressive. A further benefit to her was to be the taking from off her shoulders of the whole amount of increase of her debt between 1800 and 1817, viz., an increase represented by £2,860,050, increase of debt-charge. This was to be consolidated with the debt of Great Britain: a matter rendered the easier, as all the borrowings of Ireland since the Union had been in England. These two provisions comprised the benefits that Ireland was considered to receive from the consolidation of the exchequers; and were and have been loudly vaunted at the time, and subsequently down to the moment at which we are writing.

If, however, we can show that, although relieved from the pressure of an unjust increase of her original debt, she has been made responsible for, and to the utmost of her ability compelled to contribute to, the greatly superior original British debt; and if we further shew, that under a strict interpretation of this boasted relief of Ireland by the assumption of her post-Union debt by Great Britain, the latter will yet be found to have in fact indemnified herself by exacting from Ireland two-fourteenths of the general expenditure, instead of the condemned two-seventeenths; and again, that even supposing that post-Union debt was not at all taken off the shoulders of Ireland, but shared between the two countries according to the Union proportions, that under even such an arrangement, the payments exacted from Ireland to the general expenditure will be found to have been, on an average, equal to the said condemned proportion of two-seventeenths,—then, in the case of establishing those facts, we shall leave little pretence of benefit to Ireland from the measure of the consolidation of the exchequers. All that then can remain for the advocates of the latter measure, will be to shew, if they can, that the unfairness of those proceedings has been compensated for to Ireland by remission of taxation greater than what was conceded to Great Britain. On this, too, we shall endeavour to meet, and trust utterly to rout them.

Ireland is made to share the burthen of

To see if fact and reason justify us in our first position, viz.—that Ireland is made responsible for the British debt British antethat is, the British original, as we have called it, or anteUnion debt—let the reader peruse the following statement:—

Annual charge of the British debt contracted before the Union, } Ditto, of the Irish debt, similarly con-	£17,718,851 Par. Paper 35 of 1819.*
Ditto, of the Irish debt, similarly con-	1,244,463
Excess of British liability,	£16,474,388

Now what is the amount of the exclusive taxation of Great Britain?—Its items are: 1st, the income tax; 2nd, the land and assessed taxes; and 3rd, a portion of the excise duties. The income tax stands at an average of about £5,300,000. Of this, although nominally an exclusive British tax, a portion (the amount of which we have been refused the means of ascertaining) is being wrung from Ireland.

We do not speak of payments by absentees, as this latter contingent will better come under consideration in another form. But officers on half-pay, widows receiving government pensions, clerks in certain public offices, &c., in Ircland, have been subjected to it. There are at present no data for calculating how much has been squeezed out of the scanty means of these parties. But the amount cannot at any rate be less than what would balance any small remaining inequality between the Irish and British stamp duties—and so we are saved going into the minute details which these opposing credits would require.

Land and assessed taxes average £4,450,000. Some small items of excise are untaxed in Ireland, and on homespirits the English duty is double that in Ireland.

^{*}The above amounts are as they stood on the 5th of January, 1801. The parliamentary paper, we again remark for sake of easy reference, is of the 2nd Session of 1819.

Ireland's exemption, however, is greater in appearance than in reality; as she imports certain quantities of excised articles from Great Britain; and on several of them is charged by the exporter at least a portion of the duty, although on exportation he received back from the government the entire of the duty originally paid by him. Therefore the nett amounts for Great Britain, and not the gross receipts, are to be taken into account. These can be at once stated for the greater part of the articles, as all that is required is, to take them from the details of excise in the finance accounts. There is more difficulty about homespirits—from the circumstances of some duty being upon them in Ireland-although less in amount than the British. On this article the British payments are £4,500,000; and the Irish £1,150,000, leaving, of course, a great excess of British receipt.

But this excess is not entirely the produce of a greater pressure of taxation.

Both the greater population and wealth of Great Britain ought, generally speaking, to be taken into account, in comparisons between her and Ireland. Spirits, however, being an article, the consumption of which is little affected by a greater or lesser degree of wealth, a comparison between the two countries in this respect will embrace only the proportion of their respective populations. So much then of the excess of British payments as may be fairly referable to her greater amount of population, must first be deducted from her stated amount paid, before the latter is brought into contrast with the payments of Ireland.

The proportion of population for Great Britain, as compared with Ireland, is about three to one. But the blessed spread of teetotalism in the latter country, operates upon the comparative consumption of spirits as if the population of Great Britain were in much greater proportion.

Taking, however, the payments of Great Britain on an equal amount of the spirit duties, no higher than in the mere numeral proportion above stated, viz., as three to one, they must give about £3,450,000; and therefore her exclusive payments, under this head, cannot exceed one million.

Having now got all the figures for our calculation we proceed to set them out in due order.

	Income ta	X,	• • •		£5,300,000	Exclusive
	Land and	assessed t	axes,	• • •	4,450,000	payments by Great
	Bricks,	•••	•••	•••	560,000	Britain.
	Post-horse	e duty and	l licences,	•••	172,000	
	Soap,	•••		•••	960,000	
	Spirits,	***	•••	***	1,000,000	
	But we h	nave seen	that her	exclusiv		
			t annually		ss £16,474,000	
	a sum t		 payments,	•••	12,442,000	
	Subtract	eacousice.	payments,	•••	12,442,000	
	Remain	٠٠٠ ا	• • •		4,032,000	
fron	the exclu	sive burt	hen of wh	ich she	unfairly exonerate	28

Should errors be in this calculation, they will not be found against England. Her payments are considerably over rather than under-stated; and the calculation is, on the whole, quite sufficiently accurate for all practical purposes.

herself.

To this sum of £4,000,000, it is most unjust to make Ireland contribute. It could only be just, were the consolidation of 1816 a justifiable measure. We have seen that the contrary is the case; and we shall presently prove. that in none of the consequences of the consolidation has been anything to palliate in the slightest degree, but much to aggravate the injustice of that measure to Ireland. This unfair liability is one of those consequences; and most grievous it has proved, and must ever prove.

To find out its probable amount in money, we shall take Sir Robert Peel's estimate of our ability, as given in his taxing-scheme in the session of 1842; £410,000 on stamps and spirits he considered an equivalent for the £3,770,000, British income tax. Without delaying now to consider the justice of the estimate, we take this proportion of one to nine, and thus find that we are defrauded this year of about £440,000.* The very first step of financial justice should be to relieve us of taxation to that amount at least—to say nothing of the arrears due to us, for greater frauds of a similar nature in many preceding years.

But in any "settlement of the account" between the two nations, these arrears must come into consideration. A brief statement of them can be given here.

The only differences in the estimate for 1841, of any consequence, are, the omissions of the Income Tax and the Irish Stamp Additions—these imposts only dating from the following year. The income tax being £5,300,000, and the new Irish stamp duties having given about £120,000, it follows that a clear deduction from Great Britain's account must be made to the amount of £5,180,000 in round numbers, which would shew her separate payments short of her separate liabilities by £9,212,000. Of this sum Ireland was wrongfully compelled to bear part to her utmost ability. This, according to Sir Robert Peel, being as one to nine, she was, in 1842, unjustly held liable for a sum not less, at any rate, than a million.

The aggregate amount in which she has been defrauded

Wrongful exaction from Ireland.

^{*} The real fiscal ability of Ireland, as we shall presently shew, is (as compared with the British as one to ten. This would give £400,000 as the smallest estimate of our unjust annual liability.

since, and in consequence of the Union, should here be shewn; and accordingly we proceed to attempt it. First must be stated what Great Britain ought to have paid by her exclusive taxation; and, secondly, how much she actually did pay.

We have seen that by the Act of Union, each country was, until the exchequers, &c. should be consolidated, to defray separately the charge of its own debt, contracted previously to the Union, or, to use the readiest and briefest designation, its own ante-Union debt. Also to contribute separately, in certain relative proportions, to the common expenditure; that is to say, the expenditure clear of the charges of the two debts above specified.

The general provision as to future borrowings was, that all charges connected with them should form part of the common expenditure; but with an exception to the effect, that if one country proved better able to meet its proportion of contribution by annual taxation, than the other, the borrowings by both should necessarily continue separate charges on both, in the same way as their ante-Union borrowings were enacted to be.

Under these arrangements Great Britain had to meet the following liabilities:-

First: The charge of her own ante-Union debt.

Second: The charge of her debt separately contracted during those in the period between the Union and the consolidation. This separate charge upon her was caused by the inevitable distinctness of the borrowings of the two countries, owing to the inability of Ireland to pay her rate of contribution by taxation.

Third: The 15-17ths proportion fixed at the Union for British payments to the common expenditure.

Fourth: And as the consolidation was an illegal measure, she should, after 1816, have continued to pay under

the three preceding heads, up to the present time. A revision of the Union rates would, no doubt, have altered the proportions; but, according to the ministerial confessions in 1816, (quoted before,) such alteration should have been in favour of Ireland.

First from 1800 to the Consolidation. Before stating these liabilities in figures, it is to be premised that no cavil can possibly be made to the foregoing enunciation of them, for, at any rate, the sixteen years between the Union and the consolidation. The Act of Union itself is the authority for them during those years, with the most pertinacious upholder of the legality and propriety of the Act of Consolidation. It may, therefore, prove more convenient in discussion, if we first consider the liabilities and payments of Great Britain during the universally acknowledged period of the Union arrangements, viz., from 1800 up to 1817; and afterwards take the period from 1817 to the present time.

What was the expenditure common to both. The total expenditure of the two countries, from 1800 to 1817, will be found (see the Appendices 13, 14, 15, 4th Report of the Select Committee on Public Income and Expenditure, A.D., 1828) to have amounted to the sum of

... £1,185,166,000

The charges for the Ante-Union Debts of both countries, on 5th January, 1801,* were as follows:—

[N.B.—These we take from Parliamentary Papers 35 of 2nd Session, 1819, as being then more distinctly given than in the report of 1828—not including the redeemed debt nor sinking fund-charges.]

* The date, "5th January, 1801," given above, is by no means that at which a rightful estimate of the ante-Union liabilities of Ireland is to be made. For such an estimate the 5th of January, 1800, is, as Mr. O'Connell has always upheld, the rightful period. During the course of the year 1800, there were most unjust additions made to the Irish debt; and on a settlement of the account, the sum of these additions should be struck off. We, however, allow them to stand in the present calculation, because our endeavour is to prove our opponents wrong, even upon their own data.

Great Britain, Ireland	• • •	•••	£17,700,000 1,240,000
Total annual Which, in the 16 y			£18,940,000
to 1817, amount	ed in the a	ggre-	£303 040 000

Had Ireland been able, by the proceeds of her taxation, to meet the exactions imposed upon her by the Union-rate of contribution, the sum we have just mentioned should be the only deduction from the sum of 16 years total expenditure, in order to get the net sum of common expenditure.

But clause 6 of article 7 of the Act of Union, provided for the contingency that actually occurred—namely, that owing to her inability to pay in annual taxes, she had to have recourse to loans, distinct from the loan-operations of Great Britain. Clause 6, provided that such loans should be separately defrayed. We must therefore deduct the whole amount of debt payments in the two countries, during the 16 years in question, before we get at what really was the nett common expenditure.

These also we take from the Session Paper of 1819, before quoted; and for the same reason, namely, their being more distinctly given in that paper than elsewhere; and we again omit the redeemed debt and sinking-fund charges.

These payments amounted, on the whole, (in the 16 years, 1800-17,) to	£402,846,000
Which sum, deducted from the total (given before) of all kinds of expenditure, leaves, as what we shall call the <i>nett com-</i>	
mon expenditure,	782,320,000

Two-seventeenths of this will be found to be £92,038,000, which was Ireland's Union-proportion, and the remainder will be Great Britain's, 15-17ths, £690,282,000. It is not however mere separate liability, but excess of liability, that we are to consider—and therefore a further deduction equivalent to the amount of Ireland's separate liability must be made. The British excess will then be 13-17ths, or ...

£598,244,000

The sum just stated, being the amount of English liability, under the terms of the Union, to the active expenditure, i.e., that exclusive of debt payments; we have now to add the amount in the same number of years, of her excess on the whole amount of her debt-charge, over the Irish debt-charge. The calculation would have been merely on that portion of the debt-charge which existed before the Union, had the subsequent debt been jointly contracted; but, as before stated, that was prevented by the financial weakness of Ireland. By House of Commons' return, No. 35, of 1819, we find that the charges on British debt, funded and unfunded, amounted, from 1801 to 1817, to the gross sum of £371,892,693, and Irish do. to £40,118,298, being an excess of

331,774,395

We thus have a total excess of British liabilities for those 16 years, amounting to

£930,018,395

Now what did Great Britain actually pay? We shall state it from an authority which will not be disputed by our opponents. They know well that Mr. Rice, the present Lord Monteagle, to whom we allude, is not one who would understate the case against the Repealers, and that his official connexion with the treasury, at the time the

Amount of excess of British liabilities up to 1817, (i.e. over Irish liabilities.)

Repeal question first began to excite attention in parliament, gave him considerable advantage in making out his statements.

In the year 1834, he caused to be presented to the house several papers having relation to this subject, preparatory to the discussion on the Repeal of the Union, which took place in that year. A considerable deal of suspicion exists as to the accuracy and fairness of those papers; and in more than one instance their *inaccuracy* at least, has been distinctly proved. But, as we said before, we take them for the present as accurate, and trust, even upon their shewing, to prove that Great Britain, so far from exceeding her Union engagements, has considerably underpaid the proper and rightful amount of her separate liabilities.

Sessional paper No. 194 of 1834, is that from which we shall quote at present. Account No. 21, pages 26 and 27 of that paper, gives the "gross receipt on all articles charged with excise duties in Great Britain, which were not subject to duty in Ireland in each year since 1800." The gross amount up to, and inclusive of, 1816, will be found to be

Account No. 22, gives the "difference between excise taxation in the two countries" during a similar period, by which we find that up to the assimilation of rates on malt in 1815, Great Britain paid an excess of taxation, amounting to

On spirits she paid up to 1816, about...
On hides and skins, about ...
On auctions, paper, vinegar, &c., about...

On glass bottles, about ... Account No. 23, gives the gross receipt of "revenue under management of commissioners of taxes in Great Britain, 1801

Carried forward,

£108,400,000

29,250,000 42,000,000 2,900,000 1,600,000 1,500,000

£185,650,000

	Brought forwa	urd, £185,650,600
	to 1833, both inclusive. This account in-	
	cludes all species of what are specially	
	called "taxes" in finance accounts, such	
	as assessed taxes, land tax, income and pro-	
	perty do., &c. &c. and for sixteen years	
	the amounts will be found to make £263,800,000, and the Irish being (accord-	
	ing to account No. 24) £49,230,000, the	
	latter sum deducted from the British, will	
	give an excess of British payments of "taxes"	
	in sixteen years,	214,570,000
	Now in his speech on Wednesday, April	
	23, 1834, upon the "Repeal of the Union,"	,
	Mr. Rice stated that the excess of customs'	
	payments by Great Britain, for the thirty	
	years since the Union, was £130,000,000,	
	and of stamp duties £106,000,000, making	
	a total of £236,000,000 for thirty-three	
	years. The difference of customs' duties was chiefly before 1817, so up to that time	
	we may take their product as	80,000,000
	Stamps, in the 16 years,	53,000,000
	Stamps, in the 10 years,	00,000,000
	Total exclusive payments by Great Bri-	
Her excess of payment	tain in the sixteen years from the Union to	- 7
over Irish	the consolidation	£533,220,000
unito.	the consolidation	
	But we have seen that her exclusive liabi-	_
	bilities for the same period were	£930,018,395
	Deduct payments,	533,220,000
	a cause fully so ,	
	Therefore she failed in providing by an-	
	nual taxation for the sum of	396,798,395
	And having created debt in the interval	
	to no higher amount than	280,000,000
	She still left, as an unfair "common"	£116,798,395
Unfair	charge	2110,190,393
liabilities	Ireland was therefore unfairly made liable	1
thrown on Ireland up	for 2-17ths of this amount, or	£13,740,918
to 1817.	and and a time time time time time time time time	

Thus we have a new feature of the iniquity of the consolidation. The bankruptey of Ireland, which was the pretext for it, was greatly aided and brought about by this high amount of most unjustifiable exaction. argument cannot be mistaken nor disputed. Had Great Britain discharged, by separate taxation, or borrowing, all that was separately due by her, these £116,798,395 would not have been thrown upon the common taxation. The latter then might have been lessened by their amount. Of that relief, Ireland's share would, of course, have been at least the £13,740,988 noted above; and so considerable a relief would have very materially lightened the ruinous pressure upon her resources, and enabled her to go on until the twenty years of the act of Union had elapsed, and the period of revision arrived in due course of law.

In the foregoing calculation we have omitted the respeetive and aggregate payments of both countries, on the charge of "redeemed" debt and sinking fund. We did so for the sake of simplifying, as much as possible, the calculation: but lest it should be said that it was for the purpose of gaining any paltry advantage in the argument, we subjoin in a note the material for the reader to correct our calculation.* The results he will find not very different from those just stated; and Ireland's unjust liability reduced by very little more than a million—being £12,614,784.

^{*} Total debt charges, on debt redeemed and unredeemed, and sinking fund, in the lireland, E516,330,118 60,810,326

^{£577,140,444} which deduct, as before, from the sum total of expenditure, and proceed as

before with the computation and comparison, of the respective proportions of liability to the common expenditure, and liability to the separate debts.

In that part of our calculation which speaks of the creation of debt, we are to be understood as speaking of the nett creation:—i. e. after deduction of debt paid off.

Allowance can be made for this difference at the end of our calculation up to the present time; and the omission of the sinking fund in the preceding part, will (owing to the abandonment, several years ago, of that fallacy) much facilitate the connexion with what remains to be stated.

Having therefore ascertained the state of affairs during the sixteen years that the Union proportions were indisputably in operation, we come to the period subsequent, and up to the present time.

Progress of this injustice. Our calculations will here require that the acknowledged injustice of the Union rates on Ireland, and consequent necessity of an alteration in her favour, shall be, for the present, omitted from consideration; and that we proceed to sum up the separate liabilities of Great Britain, from 1816 to the present time, as they would have stood had the financial arrangements of the Act of Union continued actually, as most undoubtedly they did legally, (that is, legally, according to the wording of the Act of Union itself—the measure of consolidation having been passed, as we have seen, in direct neglect and violation of the Union terms,) in force and operation.

This mode of considering the liabilities of Great Britain is, of course, the most favourable for her, and the least just towards Ireland, inasmuch as the latter was and is entitled to a revision of the Union rates in her favour, and to credit for what they have caused to be exacted and drained from her, over and above what her rightful contribution should have been.

We take matters in this way, because anxious to shew that even giving our opponents the benefit of some of their main and most utterly ungrounded assertions and assumptions, Great Britain can be proved to have paid much less than she ought, in the way of separate taxation, instead of having so enormously overpaid, as Mr. Rice laboured to demonstrate in the debate of 1834.

There having been a decrease of the amount of the united debt charges of both countries, since the consolidation up to the present time, we will give Great Britain the further advantage of supposing, for the present, that that decrease was altogether on her side of the account.* Its amount being about four millions, we subtract that from the sum of funded and unfunded British debt-charge as set down for the year 1816, ending 5th January, 1817, in the return we have already quoted (No. 35 of 1819). This brings the annual debt-charge of Britain down to £24,250,000; which, in twenty-nine years, up to the present time, would have amounted to £703,250,000. But as it is the excess of liabilities, as well as of payments, that we are seeking to give credit for, we must subtract the Irish debt-charge during the twenty-nine years.

Taking its annual amount at the statement for 1816, in the return quoted, we find it to have been in twenty-nine years £118,900,000, which would leave a British excess of debt-	2*04.1*0.000
liabilities amounting to,	£584,150,000
The "common" expenditure during those	
years amounted to £778,670,000, of which	
£91,608,000 being 2-17ths, and £595,454,000	
being 15-17ths; the British excess (13-17ths)	
was	503,842,000
Total, Great Britain from 1817 to 1846	£1,087,992,000
To which add her liabilities from 1801 to	
1817, as given before	930,018,395
Total rightly exclusive British liabilities,	

^{*} Although this and similar suppositions for the sake of argument, will, we are well aware, be taken as admissions by our opponents, yet we make them in order to avoid protracted discussion, on comparatively unimportant points; we are, however, perfectly ready to prove them, at a proper time, to be mere suppositions, not facts.

... £2,018,010,395

1800 to 1846, being 45 years

Her payments (i. e. exclusive payments,) during that period, were as follows:—

According to Lord Monteagle, in 1834, they had amounted, up to that year, to ...

We have seen that in 1842, 1843, 1844, and 1845, they averaged £12,442,000, being in the aggregate.....

And that in 1841, (before the income tax, &c.) they were not more than ...

We therefore only want their amount in the 7 years from 1834 to 1840, both inclusive, to complete our statement.

An examination of the returns bearing on this subject (the latest of them is No. 279, of 1842) will most abundantly justify our saying, that on the whole, (without going into minute and intricate detail,) the British exclusive payments during those seven years, were less than in 1841. But for argument's sake, taking them at £7,250,000 annually, we have to add to the gross sum of

Total exclusive payments by Great Britain in 45 years, by produce of taxation ...

Taking the highest possible amount of the nett creation of debt, (i. e. of the excess of debt created over debt reduced,) we have a

£1,096,463,472

49,768,000

7,262,000

50,750,000

£1,204,243,470

further sum of (say in round numbers) ... 270,000,000

Total "exclusive" payments by Great Britain in 45 years, by taxation and by money borrowed, ... £1,474,243,470

But we have seen that her "exclusive" liabilities, during that period, amounted rightful-

But we have seen that her "exclusive" liabilities, during that period, amounted rightfully to ... £2,018,010,395

Deduct her "exclusive" payments, ...

Deficiency, ...

... 1,474,243,470 Total of the deficiency of British exclusive payments since Union, and of Irish untare the common contri-

This sum has therefore fallen upon the common contrifair habiturity butions; and the result to Ireland has been, that she has quence, had to pay to a standard of taxation, aggravated by the above amount.

Had the Union terms, bad as they were, been faithfully observed, no part of the above would have been defrayed out of taxes bearing equally on Ireland as on Great Britain; and therefore the *common* taxation could have been reduced so much. Ireland's share of this relief would have been 2-17ths, or £60,443,166,* and to this extent (aggravated, of course, by the sums that must be due as interest and compound interest) she has been defrauded by Great Britain.

And this upon the most favourable statement of the case for the latter country, and grossly *unfavourable* statement for Ireland!

^{*} The sixty millions of relief of taxation of which we have shewn Ireland to have been defrauded, up to the present time, under the Union arrangements, must, of course, be increased in amount by a third, or more, if we consider the interest and compound interest annually accruing. Thus, on this score alone, we can, if we choose to insist on it, when the two countries come to draw stakes, reduce the pretended 112 millions of debt of Ireland in 1816-17 to 30 millions: and even then it would be a question whether we were doing justice to ourselves.

It is nothing to say, in answer to this, that Ireland failed in supplying her pecuniary quota under the Union arrange-In the first place, they were confessed to have been too high; and consequently the quota for Great Britain must have been too low. And had Ireland not been overstrained in her resourses, by what we have seen to have been a most unduly extended scale of taxation, she might have discharged all just obligations. But the fact is, that whatever may have been her defaultings previous to 1817; she has since the consolidation, which came into force in that year, been compelled to pay, on an average, what was at the least equivalent to the confessedly unjust Union rate of 2-17ths of common expenditure; and her having paid that proportion, is a decisive proof of the inefficacy for good of the measure of consolidation: for it professed to relieve her from that unjust rate—whereas, in reality, she had afterwards to pay it, as we shall see—and did so pay it, not in consequence of greater financial ability, but from the accidental circumstance, that the imperial expenditure became reduced so considerably, as that the post-1816 exactions from Ireland amounted to the proportion of 2-17ths of its sum.

Details of dation act.

Having now, we trust, completely demolished all arguthe practical ment from the separate taxation of Great Britain—an argument on which Mr. Rice, in 1834, and his imitators and followers since, put great reliance-we proceed to shew, in as accurate detail as possible, the practical working of the consolidation act.

> We have, by the calculations just concluded, established the first of the three positions which we enunciated a few pages back (p. 328), viz., that Ireland has had, to the utmost of her ability, to contribute towards the greatly superior original debt of Great Britain.

The other facts-viz., her undue contributions (under

either of the suppositions, as to the debt-arrangements, since the consolidation) to the active common expenditure, remain to be established.

Before laying this branch of our subject open, it is Preliminary necessary to explain the grounds on which we shall claim this uncrean amount additional on the annual stated revenues of tion. Ireland, under the title of uncredited taxation.

Ireland has for many years received a large proportion of her consumption of foreign articles through English ports, instead of directly into her own ports. The consequence has of course been, that the amount of duty being paid in England, is credited to the British revenue, while it is, in fact, an Irish contribution to the state taxes. To enter into minute detail on this point would be of small advantage, if even possible, through the mass of difficulty in the way, occasioned mainly by the shifting regulations that have affected those articles.

A return was moved for, a few years ago, (Acct. No. 6, of Paper No. 305, of 1842,) that was expected to bring out something like accurate data for the computation of this uncredited revenue of Ireland; but the following note prefixed to it by the officer in whose department it was prepared, will shew how impossible it is, to make even what might be considered a distant approach towards accuracy:

"The deficiencies in this statement are ascribable-first, to the imperfect provision in Ireland for separate registration of foreign imports through Great Britain-a cause the operation of which affects the whole period prior to 1819; and, secondly to the absolute want of any record of the trade of the two countries since 1825."

Under these circumstances, it would be but waste of time to attempt to particularize. We shall therefore seek to give the reader no more than a general idea on this

subject, and refer him chiefly to adverse authorities. late Lord Congleton, well known to be an anti-repealer, and one who, in his work on financial reform, laboured hard to cut the ground from under the repealers, was obliged to admit that the amount uncredited to Ireland of her contributions to the general taxes, was at least an annual £300,000. He made, however, a gross error in this calculation; as at the time he wrote the foregoing, Irish tea duties, to the amount of between £400,000 and £500,000, were paid in British ports, and ought therefore to have been added to the sum he mentioned; making it £700,000 instead of £300,000. There was, further, the benefit to the British exchequer from the expenditure of the absentee rents—an amount that can only be guessed at. The absentee drain is computed variously, by various authorities; all, however, concurring in shewing a ruinous increase of the drain since the Union. The committee "on the circulating paper, specie, current coin of Ireland, and exchanges between her and Great Britain," which sat in 1804, (report reprinted 1810, and numbered 18 of that vear) estimated it at £2,000,000. Mr. Alderman Haves. in his excellent speech at the repeal discussion of the Cork corporation, April, 1843, remarked: "In 1825, the absentee drain, according to the Edinburgh Review, was £3,500,000; in 1827, Lord Cloncurry put it down at £4,000,000; and in 1828, Mr. Nicholas Philpot Leader, a very accurate statist, estimated it at the same; a later authority estimates it at £4,650,000 annually."

Absentee drain.

To this we may add, that one of the authorities cited by Mr. Hayes, Lord Cloneurry, has, within the last two years, increased his former estimate of the drain by absentee remittances, up to £6,000,000.

Taking these figures, which are corroborated by other authorities, there must have been, when Lord Congleton

wrote, at least, a sum exceeding four millions going away annually to absentees. Of this sum 5-6ths, at least, were spent in Great Britain; and taking the per-centage of benefit to the exchequer of the latter country on that expenditure, even so low as four per cent, we have £130,000 to add to Lord Congleton's estimate of uncredited taxation; making the latter (taking the tea duties also,) £850,000-to which add an average sum of about £65,000 quit and crown rents, (see paper No. 222 of 1842,) making in all £915,000 annually; for which Ireland got no more credit than did the island of Japan. Nay, as we have before remarked, these very payments went to increase the apparently enormous disparity between the revenue of Great Britain and her own; and thereby to subject her to an insulting and unjust comparison; to a pitiless increase of taxation, whensoever it might please Great Britain to put it on; and finally, to a denial of a fair share of the remission of taxes.

We do not mean to say that this was the average amount of her uncredited payments since 1817. It has been very frequently exceeded, and exceeded considerably. There were also several years when the drain fell short of it—although not so short as to establish the foregoing as an average.

In the years last alluded to, tea being admitted to pay duty in *Irish* ports, the £400,000 or £500,000 upon it ceased to be an uncredited payment, and went directly to swell the Irish revenue. But we contend that Lord Congleton understated the amount, exclusive of the tea-duties. General estimates of her uncredited taxing to show that Ireland had rather been treated with in- ation. dulgence than with injustice in financial matters,—Mr. William Stanley, in his Facts for Ireland,—a work composed directly to win a prize, promised some years ago by

Lord Cloncurry, to any person who should make out the best case against the assertions of the advocates of Repeal, found himself compelled to admit, that this uncredited taxation of Ireland was £340,000 annually—thus exceeding the estimate of Lord Congleton by about one-eight. And he, like the nobleman just named, omitted the tea-tax, then paid in British ports, the per-centage of benefit on absentee expenditure, and the quit and crown rents.

But the reader can, to some extent, form a judgment for himself, of the uncredited taxation under the head of eustoms' duties alone, by simply turning to the finance accounts of the year, and comparing the details of receipts on customs, in Great Britain and Ireland respectively. He will there see, on articles of common consumption in both countries, the Irish duties' receipt so low sometimes as £20, £10, and even 30s., while British receipts amount to many thousands. If the small Irish receipts really represented Irish consumption, then would there be a most triumphant argument against taxing Ireland equally with Great Britain, or in a rate at all approaching to equality. But the fact is, they do not really represent it; but the surplus consumed in Ireland, over what they represent, is imported from England, and duty paid on it there, to the benefit of the English exchequer, and the detriment of the Irish.

Sugar, as well as tea, has sometimes been charged in the Irish schedule of customs' receipts, and sometimes in the British. At this moment a portion of payments upon its Irish consumption is made in Great Britain; as we import from thence all the refined sugar that we consume, and some of the raw sugar. Taking all these various matters into consideration, we do not fear that the slightest charge of exaggeration, at least, can be made against us, if we as-

sume the uncredited taxation of Ireland to have amounted to an average sum of £400,000.

Having now cleared away the necessary preliminary matter, we proceed to show what Ireland has paid since 1816, up to and including the year 1845. The calculation cannot of course include the present year—as the finance accounts for it will be not closed until the commencement of 1847.

Average British	Average Irish	United	Charge of
Income, 29 yrs.	Income, do.	Expenditure.	United Debts.
£	£	£ 54,000,000	£
51,000,000	4,400,000		29,300,000

From the British income, £400,000 uncredited payments by Ireland are to be deducted, and to be added to the Irish income. The account will then stand thus:—

Average for 29 years, up to 1846.

British Income.	Irish Income.	United Expenditure.	Do. Charge of Debts.
£	£	£	£
50,600,000	4,800,000	54,000,000	29,300,000

Now, if the boast of the defenders of England's policy, proof of who assert that she, at the consolidation of the exchequers, tortions did bona fide take on her shoulders the unjust increase of land since the Irish debt, be allowed, it will follow that Ireland must the consolihave had only her Union-amount of debt to provide for ever since, viz.—an annual charge of £1,240,000.* This

^{*} Here again the reader will perceive we are taking the unfair statements of 1801, for the amounts respectively of British and Irish debt, instead of the fairer statements of the beginning of the year 1800. But our endeavour is, to beat our opponents on their own grounds.

subtracted from her average of income, will be found to leave a surplus of the latter to the amount of £3,560,000, which has gone to England as the Irish contribution to the common expenditure. The amount of that common expenditure can be found by subtracting the average united charge of debts from the average united total expenditure, and to the sum so found, viz. £24,700,000, the Irish contribution does not, indeed, bear the condemned proportion of two-seventeenths; but it does bear the far higher and more grievous proportion of two-fourteenths. Thus, in this first case, Ireland has had no real relief; as, although no longer called upon to pay to an amount of debt confessed to be unjust, her rate of contribution in other ways has been increased and forced up to the very uttermost point that it could possibly be raised to.

We take the second case now, viz., that of an arrangement and apportionment between the two countries of the increase of the Irish debt. It is here necessary to compare the increase in both countries, taking their debts, as we said before, to be most conveniently represented by the annual charge in each case.

The annual charge on the British debt in 1801, was £17,718,851. And on 5th January, 1817, when the consolidation took place, it was £28,258,416, which was an increase of 59 per cent.

The annual charge on the Irish debt in 1801, was £1,244,463, and at the consolidation it was £4,104,514, being 228 per cent. increase.

This disproportionate increase was on all hands confessed to have been caused by the unfair rate of contribution imposed on Ireland by the Union, and therefore was an unfair increase. Had her debt increased only in the same ratio as that of Great Britain, the debt-charge would not have

been more than £1,978,659, leaving an excess of £2,125,855, which is the amount of the totally unjustifiable increase of Irish debt. If, instead of consolidation in 1817, the Unionrates had been continued, and the above unjust increase of the Irish debt had been put on the two countries in the proportion of those rates, the result would have been as follows :-

Debt-charge, Ireland, at Union, was	£1,244,463
Added 67 per cent. increase up to 1817,	, 0 -
Further additions, 2-17ths of the unfair exces	
of increase,	250,100
Total debt-charge, Ireland,	£2,228,759
1	£32,342,500
And is now no more than	. 28,253,872
	04.000.000
Therefore there has been a reduction of	£4,088,628
Of which Ireland ought to have 2-17ths to her credit; viz. £481,015—which sum subtracted from her charge as stated just now,	
reduces the latter to	
To which 2-17ths of the common expenditure,	
(viz. £23,910,404,)	2,905,882
Total average expenditure of Ireland, 29	
years,	4,653,626
This sum, subtracted from her income before	
1 1	
stated, viz	4,800,000
Leaves as surplus of the latter,	

We trust we have shown what we proposed to alo in this Unlimited branch of our subject; and demonstrated beyond the exaction power of cavil, that in whatever light we view the financial in consearrangements at the consolidation, their result has not that meabeen to diminish the measure of the exactions from Ireland. The power that act gave, of drawing indiscrimi-

nate contributions from Ireland, has caused every shilling of her revenues, after payment of her debt charge, and the extremely reduced local expenditure of government, to be drawn away to England. And the same power would equally cause the abstraction from Ireland of every farthing of additional revenue that could at any time accrue; Ireland being, by the consolidation, pledged in all her resources, present and future, and mortgaged in every acre, for the enormous amount of the English national debt. Until the latter be paid off, not one penny can Ireland (under the present imperial arrangements) expend upon purposes of her own; no matter though her revenues were to become tenfold or twentyfold more fruitful than they are at present.



SECTION IV.

CONTENTS.

That Ireland has thus paid in a higher proportion than before the Consolidation, is simply owing to the very great Reduction of the Common Expenditure since the period of that measure—Thé Union Terms ought to have been tried under that reduced expenditure-Why they were not.

Most of the points of the Petition at the commencement of this article, are now proved. There remains but one of importance viz., Non-Compensation (by remission of taxation) for the fiscal Injustice done to Ireland-Evidence of this.

General Remarks on the Money Drains from Ireland—the Absence Drain—the Revenue Drain, credited and uncredited, &c., &c.— Balance of Public Money remitted from one country to the other-Circumstances of the Expenditure of the Irish Revenue.

WE have before remarked, that the payment by Ireland, Why she has not sunk since 1816, of at least 2-17ths of the common expenditure, under those exactions. and we may add here, even the payment of 2-12ths, as in the first case in the calculation just concluded was shewn, will furnish no argument against us, drawn from any supposed increase of her liability. As we said before, we repeat, that her being able to pay such high proportions was the simple consequence of the immense reduction of expenditure since the war. We have alluded to this reduction before; and therefore need now only add, that the calculations which were put forward at the time of the

consolidation, to show the inability of Ireland, were made upon an expenditure which, though somewhat reduced from that of preceding years, was still (according to the finance accounts just then presented for the year in which that measure passed, viz. the year 1816) £122,604,986; an amount that in the succeeding year was found to have fallen nearly twenty-eight millions; and the year after to have further fallen twenty-six millions. And even the exaggerated expenditure of the last few years, has been no higher at any time than fifty-five millions—thus shewing a total reduction of expenditure since the year 1815, of no less than sixty-six millions.

Further evidences of her unfair treatment.

Had the proposers of the consolidation been really disposed to act fairly towards Ireland, they ought, at the least, to have given her one year's trial under the system of extensive reduction of expenditure. But the plain fact and truth would seem to be, that they were afraid to give Ireland any opportunity of escaping the tremendous liabilities with which they were about to saddle her. And this feeling and motive of theirs, were rendered the more active just then, as the united clamour of the people of England and Scotland compelled ministers to give up in that year the property tax, which Mr. Rice (Lord Monteagle) himself estimated to have been a relief of £14,617,823, and the malt war-duties, which from his returns would appear to have been a further relief of about £2,400,000making altogether seventeen millions, which were taken off the people of Great Britain in the year 1816! An additional reason was thus supplied to get, by one means or the other, the security of the resources of Ireland to the public creditor of Great Britain; and the consequence to the former country has been, as we have before remarked, that no matter though her revenues were to become ten-fold or twenty-fold more fruitful than they are at present, not one tax can she take off or reduce, by means of a surplus, in any year: all such surplus must go to England, there to be applied to the payment of the enormous, and for the greater part, rightfully exclusive, liabilities of the latter.

The reader is now again referred back to the petition at the commencement of this article; when he will find that paragraph 6 has been proved.

Paragraph 7, as to the non-compensation of Ireland, by means of remission of taxation, is the next point in issue.

The details, up to last year, will be found in the Sessional Papers of the House of Commons, 305 of 1842, (continuing former returns,) 652 of 1845, further continuing the same—and in Paper No. 573 of 1843.

RELIEF OF TAXATION.			IMPOSITION OF TAXATION.		
	Great Britain.	Ireland.	Great Britain.	Ireland.	
From 1800 up to \\ 1815, (inclusive.) \\\ From 1815 up to \\\ 1845, (inclusive.) \\\	£47,114,574	£2,664,090	£30,000,000 10,620,000	£4,450,000 *1,060,000	
Totals up to 1846.	£47,114,574	£2,664,090	£40,620,000	£5,510,000	

Thus, up to and including last year (1845), the relief given to Ireland was to that given to Great Britain, less than as one to 17—while her share of the taxes *imposed*, has been higher than as 1 to 7.

^{*} The abandoned spirit duty of 1842-3 is of course deducted in the Irish account.

The tax-reductions of this year were the corn-duties, and those on certain articles of foreign import: chiefly those used in the production of manufactures. England is a larger consumer of bread-stuffs—it is needless to say, than unfortunate Ireland; and, therefore, the relief, in the respect of the corn duties, must be more sensibly felt by her. The relief on articles of import subsidiary to manufactures, must also be more beneficial to her—as she has so many and such various branches of flourishing industry in that line; and Ireland has none save the linen—a branch not affected by these reductions.

We are therefore entitled to say, that the unjust disparity of taxation-relief existing at the end of the last year against Ireland, has, if anything, been aggravated by the tax-reductions of this year.

At the same time we, of course, do not protest against, but in the highest degree approve of those reductions, as having been called for by humanity and by sound policy. But this we say, that they are not to be pleaded against Ireland's case for fiscal redress—if we waive our right to plead their greater benefit to Great Britain.

The exemption of Ireland from assessed taxes has been much spoken of; but the fact is, that these taxes were taken off her, solely because they were failing of production. The last receipt on them was under £300,000; and notices to discontinue objects of this taxation were yearly increasing. From 1816 to 1820 these notices were (by parliamentary papers 258 of 1816, and 142 of 1819) as follows:—

Carriages. Horses. Servants. Hearths and Windows. Dogs. Packs of Honnds. 5,584 4,031 1,806 66,440 2,038 4

And from the paper before referred to, viz., No. 305 of 1842, we find that Great Britain relieved herself under this head to a much greater amount, viz.:—

Assessed taxes, Ireland, reduced 1818, Do. do. repealed 1816 to 1823,	£240,090 $296,000$
Total relief under these heads to Ireland,	£536,090
Assessed taxes, Great Britain, reductions since 1816,	£2,584,514
Total repales of various kinds since 1823,	2,594,688
Total relief to Great Britain	£5,179,202

Referring once more to the taxation petition of the Re-Reference again to the peal Association, it will be seen that we have now substan-petition before given. tiated all the statements in it, respecting which there is any considerable amount of controversy. On the subject of the drains from Ireland there is less dispute; that is, with regard to their existence—the latter being acknowledged by all; while their operation for evil to Ireland is, strange to say, denied by some.

On an average of statements, the absentee drain may be taken at five millions.

The "Revenue drain" from Ireland has been a serious Revenue grievance; and if accidental circumstances have, of late years, mitigated it, we have no security whatever (but rather a well-grounded conviction to the contrary), that with a modification of those circumstances the grievance will not revive and be increased.

The "revenue drain" varies in amount from year to vear, with occasional great disparity. The greater or less consumption, in one year, as compared with another, of foreign goods imported into Ireland through England, affects that portion of our revenue drain, which we have denominated "uncredited revenue"—i. e. duty paid on the goods in question by the Irish importers—paid in England and credited to the British exchequer; whereas,

being money coming from Ireland, and paid out of Irish

pockets, it ought to be credited to her account of state contributions. This uncredited revenue we have elsewhere averaged at a low estimate of £400,000 per annum.

The drain of *credited* revenue, consists of that portion of the Irish revenue as stated in the annual accounts, which goes to England after payment of all government expenses and charges upon this side of the water.

Account No. 2, page 13, of par. paper, 652, of 1845, gives the following statement of the remittances from the British Exchequer to the Irish, and vice versa, from the year 1800, to the 1st January, 1845.

Remitted from the British Exchequer to the Irish, ... £7,495,862 ,, from the Irish Exchequer to the British, ... 26,785,453

Balance of Irish remittances, ... £19,289,591.

This would appear to be the aggregate amount of the drain of credited revenue in the period mentioned.

Account No. 3, of the same paper, (p. 21,) shews that during the year 1844, there were no remittances either way, and the same has been the case in 1845 and 1846.

There has, therefore, been no drain of credited revenue during these last three years: but this is a casual circumstance, mainly owing in the last two, at least, to the appalling calamity which has come upon upon the country, in the destruction of the food of the people. The increased expenditure which has been occasioned in the government offices in Ireland by the efforts to meet this emergency, has absorbed the money which otherwise would have gone to England.

Lord De Grey's fortifications, the expenses of the state prosecutions, and the spy-money lavished in 1844, in Ireland, will account for there having been no drain in that year.

The greater the amount of revenue, the greater the drain must be. Every shilling spared beyond the cost of the reduced government establishments in this country, being, as we have before remarked, sent off to England.

Another item of drain is to be noted in the amount of monies paid by Ireland for such manufactures imported, as her poverty has caused her to cease supplying herself with. As linen may be said to be her only subsisting branch of manufacture, it is not too much to suppose that she pays (on all others) a sum, which, deducting commission and other small local charges, must exceed, at the very least, two millions of our money.

We have named an amount which to many will appear ridiculously low. But our object throughout this article has been to *understate* rather than exaggerate, in every thing we put forward. After the "manufactures' drain," as this item may be shortly styled, comes the drain by reason of the mortgages on estates, private loans, &c. This may fairly be considered a consequence of the Union; as the general impoverishment of the country by that measure has mainly brought these embarrassments on the landlords. The lowest estimate which is made of the amount of these embarrassments of the landed interest, is to the value of one-third of the rental of the country, or about £4,500,000. The loan dealings of parties engaged in trade, or of fundholders, we have no means of estimating, and, therefore, it would be the merest guessing to attempt to set down a specific sum for the interest annually going to England on the sums borrowed by individuals in Ireland.

Taking them, however, into consideration in closing our calculation of the *drains* from Ireland, we may safely say, that, *irrespective of the drain of credited revenue*, (which has had but three years of intermission, out of the 46 years

since the Union,) the drains by reason of the absentee remittances, the payments on manufactures, the uncredited revenue, and the interest of private loans, cannot be less than eight millions a-year!

During the years that the drain of credited revenue was in action, half a million more was often added to the foregoing amount.

With reference to revenue drain, we know that we shall be caught up here with the remark, that Ireland is bound to contribute to the *general imperial* expenditure, as well as to defray the expenses of her local government. This we never meant to deny, nor even to omit acknowledging.

But the question is, what *rightfully* should the proportion be of her *general* contribution? Is it that which exists, or should it be greater or less?

We have shewn, in treating of the evil consequences of the consolidation act, that the existing rate of Ireland's contribution is limited only by the measure of her ability. Land and assessed taxes, and the differential excise duties, would exist in Ireland were she able to bear them. land tax it was never pretended could be put upon her. The assessed taxes had to be taken off, by reason of their unproductiveness. The excise duties have not been thoroughly equalized, from the example of the failure of the results of equalization in other cases. The income tax Ireland was exempted from by Sir Robert Peel, with the distinct and full confession, that such was the fiscal weakness of Ireland, that the income tax, if imposed upon her, would not pay the costs of collection. And that weakness he has since borne further, and most unwillingly, witness to, by abandoning, as a failure, the additional spirit duty, by which, in 1842, he sought to screw some trifling increase of contribution out of her poverty.

The proportion of her fiscal ability to that of Great

Objection to the statement of "Drains," viz. that some are payments lawfully due. Britain, we have before stated to have been calculated by Sir R. Peel, and Mr. Goulburn, at about as one to nine. This is quite sufficiently accurate for our present purposes.

The proportion and manner of our expenditure are now How our to be shewn. For this purpose we are constrained to take expended. the year 1844, as being the last for which we have a distinct account of Irish expenditure. (See Acct. No. 3, at page 21, Acct. No. 3, of Sess. Paper 652, of 1845.)

EXPENDITUDE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM, YEAR 1844, (ended January, 1845.)				
		Gt. Britain.	Ireland.	
	-	£	£	
Civil List, Annuities, Pensions, Salaries, Allowances, Diplomatic Salaries and Pensions, Courts of Justice, and mis- cellaneous charges on the Consolidated fund.		2,100,000	<i>5</i> 85,000	
Army and Ordnance	۱ ر	6,830,000	1,270,000	
Miscellaneous on Annual Grants		3,000,000	375,500	
Navy,		5,858,000	Against this set down our uncredited revenue payments, viz. 450,000	
		17,788,000	2,680,500.	

This shews our proportion of payments on the expenditure, exclusive of that on *debt*, to be to the British, as one to six and a-half.

There is an apparent anomaly in stating Ireland's payments as one to six and a-half, and her fiscal ability so low as one to nine. But it is to be recollected, that the items we have given do not embrace the payments on "Debt," which alone constitute more than half the entire imperial expenditure.

These payments on "Debt," which we may call the debt expenditure for the sake of distinctness, are of two kinds, 1st, those in discharge of the principal of the debt,

which first can only be in case of a surplus of revenue, over the entire sum of annual expenditure; and 2nd, (which must be met annually,) the payment of the interest and charges of management of the "Debt."

When there is a surplus of the imperial revenue over the sum total of expenditure of all kinds, a disbursement takes place for the reduction of the *principal* of the national debt. But when, as often happens, there is no such surplus, the "debt expenditure" as we have just called it, is confined to meeting the annual interest and charges.

In either and both cases the monies of Ireland, as we have before shewn, are applied to the fullest extent they can go, in the same manner as the monies of Great Britain. There is a delusive item in the official statements of the Irish account which would lead one to believe that she is accountable only to a certain limited extent; or, in plain words, to a certain limited amount of debt; and that that once satisfied, she would be at liberty to apply any surplus of her revenue to the liquidation of the capital of such limited amount of debt, irrespective of the state of the British finances.

For instance—in the year we have quoted, viz. 1844, we find (see page 21, of the paper 652 of 1845, before quoted,) set down for the

"Dividends, Interest, and management of the public Debt payable in Ireland, £1,395,000."

This, however, as a brief consideration of the words we have put in Italics will shew, is really no limitation whatever of the general liability of Ireland to all British expenses, past, present, and future; and is simply nothing more than the specification of the interest and charges on that portion of the united debts which is held by parties in Ireland. Convenience suggested, and has maintained, the practice of having disbursements on account of

such portion, made on the spot in Ireland, out of the Irish revenue, ere any part of it goes over to the imperial

exchequer.

This general liability of Ireland enables the Chancellor of the Exchequer to exercise a complete command over Irish monies to the very last shilling, and very last penny. Convenience guides him in the disposition of it. As it does so with regard to the defraying debt-charge payable in Ireland, so does it with regard to the meeting the expences of an active nature in that country. That is to say, all such expenses, when accidentally exaggerated, as peculiar circumstances, already mentioned, have in the last three years made them to be, as well as when reduced, are defrayed with Irish monies, before any part of them goes over to the imperial exchequer.

The current government expenses in Ireland being undue thus at once defrayed out of the Irish monies, without reference to proportion of any kind, the residue left to apply to the imperial debt is often very small. It will, therefore, be at once seen that the fiscal ability of Ireland may be as low as one to nine, or lower; while her payments on the items of expenditure, exclusive of that on "debt," may be, and are in a much higher rate.

Of course, in those years when the expenditure on those items in Ireland falls to its due proportion to that in Great

Britain, Irish money is applied to British debt-charge. This application of it is one of the worst grievances of the

act that consolidated the two exchequers, debts, &c., in 1816.

We have before proved the consolidation act illegal, and that, therefore, Ireland's debt-liability ought to be limited. And at page 351 we have made a rough estimate of what ought, under a fair state of things, be the outside of her liability in this respect, viz., £1,825,600. Now, if Ireland

were called upon to pay to the expenditure clear of debt, only in the proportion of her general fiscal ability, viz. as one to nine, instead of as one to six and a half, there would have been upwards of £705,000 spared to her, which with the sum of £1,395,000 credited to her for that portion of debt payable in Ireland, would of course have left a surplus of Irish monies, after every fair charge of every kind, of £274,000, applicable either to the liquidation of the capital of her just debt, to the remission of her taxation, or to the relief of the present distress.

In 1845 she therefore paid too much on the items given, by the difference between the fractions \(\frac{1}{9} \) and \(\frac{1}{64} \). Great Britain, on the contrary, paid too little. The latter's payments on the same items, ought to have been so high, as that the sum we have set down for them in the table of expenditure already given, should have been nine times as great as that we have set down for Ireland. This would have brought matters to something like equality. If this made the sum total of payments exceed the real wants of the empire, taxation should be reduced equally. But whatever might be done as to that, the excess of British debt-charge should no longer be allowed in any way, directly or indirectly, to inflame the liabilities of Ireland. Neither should one penny of Irish money go to England.

English revenue is not spent here; why then should Irish revenue be spent in England?

We are not denying that there might be imperial purposes out of Ireland, to which the latter ought to contribute. But those purposes are not English or Scotch, they are what their name indicates—belonging to the empire—such as expenses in foreign wars, and upon the colonies and dependencies in time of peace. With regard to the first, the consent of the Irish parliament should be

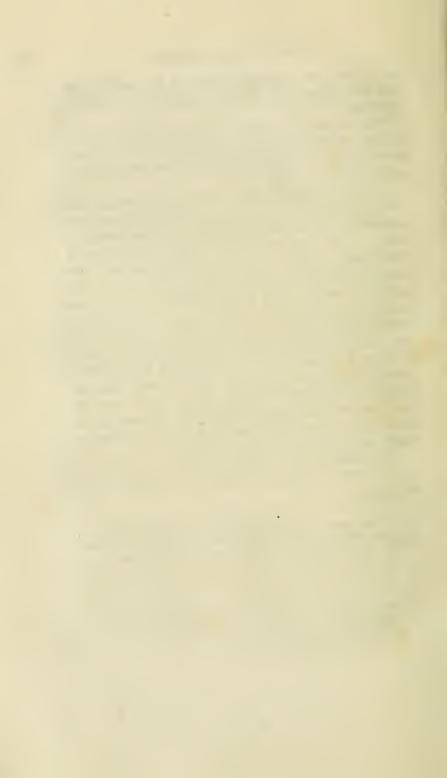
had to them, ere they would cause us any liability; and with that consent we, of course, would have no right to complain.*

With regard to expenses in time of peace in the colonies and foreign dependencies, we should not be liable to them, unless ensured *compensating advantages* of the most unequivocal kind.

In short, we advocate having the Irish revenue spent in Ireland, in the years when there is a surplus over local expenses: as it is in those when it no more than meets the latter. If the exigencies of the empire will not permit that taxation should be lightened, let England send over a large division of the fleet of the empire to our noble and secure harbours, and we will maintain it at our own cost: let other public establishments be apportioned between us in a similar manner; and thus, while we shall find great benefit and relief from having the money which is taken from us in taxes spent among us in public expenditure, instead of (as is so often the case) going to England, the United Kingdom will be in no way the loser; nor will the jealousy of the people of Great Britain be excited, as it naturally would be, if taxes were, however justly, taken off us, and left upon them.

The principle of an amicable financial arrangement between Great Britain and Ireland is contained in the foregoing.

^{*} It is evident that the interference of the Irish parliament would have been most useful in the case of the enormous Canada, China, and India expenses, to save Ireland from the unjust liability to them.



ADDENDUM

TO THE

"TAXATION INJUSTICE."

MUCH has been said of the generosity with which public money has been given to Irish purposes. We will not delay to comment upon the wrongful use of the word "generosity," where rightfully the word "compensation" should have been employed. We shortly reply to the assertion—first, by referring those making it to the speeches of Mr. Goulburn, late Chancellor of the Exchequer, Sir J. Graham, late Home Secretary, and Sir Robert Peel, late Premier, who, during the last session of parliament, did each and all more than once confess that monies given to Ireland had resulted in profit to the empire, and that a high rate of interest, and much of the capital had been repaid by her on that portion of the public money which had been advanced by way of loan.

We next reply by drawing attention to the following extracts

from parliamentary papers.

The first speaks for itself. It is from page 98 of the Finance Accounts presented this year:—

No. 74 E.-IRELAND.-AN ACCOUNT of the Sums of Money advanced from the Exchequer for the Promotion of various National Objects; for Public Works and Employment of the Poor; improving Post Roads; building Gaols, Bridewells, Lunatic Asylums, Support of Lunatics, Pollce, &c.; and of the Repayments made on Account thereof; distinguishing each Service, showing the Total Amount issued, and the Amount paid into the Exchequer in Repayment of Principal.

TOTAL PRINCIPAL REPAID.	£ \$ 4, 4, 25, 1 2 188, 209, 1 2 188, 209, 1 2 188, 209, 1 2 188, 209, 209, 209, 209, 209, 209, 209, 209	£7,049,154 10 5
TOTAL ISSUED.	## 6. 4. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1.	£9,067,171 2 9
PURPOSES FOR WHICH ADVANCES WERE MADE.	Boards of Health for preventing Contagion, 58 G. 3, c. 47 (Fever Hospitals)	

Several times the author of this work essayed to get a corresponding return for Great Britain.

The following is the nearest approach he has been enabled to make to his object:—

Return in detail of all ney voted, or appli loans or grants, in Scotland.—(Session of 1842, including I the same session.)	ied, either as England and al Paper 305	Finance Accounts.	nd, in the
	£		£
Communications with	~		~
Ireland,	1,014,679		0
Canals,	1,004,461	Canals, Rivers, and	
		Drainage,	1,310,600
Harbours, Docks, and	9.079.144		493,600
Light-Houses, Roads, Bridges, and	2,012,144		450,000
Ferries,	1.203.250		905,650
Fisheries,	84,828		33,000
Improvement of Cities			
and Towns,			616,800
Churches,	1,704,111		128,600 108,000
Colleges,	104,750	Law Courts, Gaols, and	100,000
places of Confine-		Lunatic Asylums,	302,000
ment,	781,497		,
Relief of the Poor,	56,557	Work-Houses and Emi-	1
Advances by Feels		gration,	1,734,700
Advances by Exche- chequer Bills, Com-		Water-works Compensation for Da-	27,000
missioners for Pub-		mages during Riots	80,750
lic Works, &c	6,332,150	Thames Tunnel,	250,500
		Sundries,	21,600
	£15,661,385	-	6,012,800

The author has been unable to make out how much of the sums stated in the later account, that is to say, in the paper No. 652 of 1845, is to be added to the returns in the paper 305 of 1842, upon the respective items in each. It is certain, however, that a large proportion is to be added.

And independent of either of the returns already quoted, the

following are to be added from other returns:

Sessional Paper 394 of 1842.

British Fisheries, from 1809 up to 1830	£927,000
Do. last year and this; (see finance accounts)	£60,000
British Museum, National Gallery, &c. (see finance accounts)	£1,400,000
Royal Palaces, and Houses of Parliament	£4,000,000
Scotch Union Compensation (still paid) per annum,	£4,500

Besides other items of minor amount, such as the payments on the various items stated in the returns quoted, since those returns were made, &c., &c. On the whole it is an under estimate to say, that more than thirty millions have, in this way, been given to Great Britain.

With regard to the payment of interest by each country respectively, the fact was admitted by the three ministers whom we have mentioned, that Ireland was made, and did and does duly pay, five per cent interest; although the money loaned was got by the government at 3 and $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

Meantime some of the loans to Great Britain bore no interest at all, as, for instance:—

Thames Tunnel, Highland Roads and Bridges, &c.	•••			£260,000 90,000
And some smaller items, (for which paper 160 of 1839,) about:—	see account	No. 7,	p. 24,	50,000
				£400,000

The paper last quoted—one moved for by the then Chancellor of the Exchequer himself—is the only one we have met at all specifying the rates of interest on money advances to English works. It mentions a sum of £5,622,050, at three per cent., another of £1,655,052, at four per cent., and £130,000, at rates between three and four. We have no continuation of this paper to the present time.

We cannot close this Addendum without a short statement illustrative of the increase of the portion of debt charged in the public accounts as "debt payable in Ireland," and alluded to at page 362 of this work.

TRANSFERS OF STOCK-IRELAND AND GREAT BRITAIN.

	To Ireland from England.	Vice Versa.
9 years up to 1833, Ditto to 1842, Years 1842 and 1843 Do. 1844 and 1845	 2 265 679	£ 5,725,757 6,379,566 1,385,715 523,242

From ... £28,778,678 Transfers to Ireland, Take ... 14,014,280 Do. to Great Britain.

Balance £14,764,398 to Ireland.

The act allowing these transfers passed in 1824. Some of the transfers then made were of monies a long time invested in the English funds, and now transferred for the convenience of receiving dividends. Others were from the following cause: the cessation of the protecting duties caused Irish capital to be withdrawn from trade and invested in stock.

In the second period of nine years the amount fell one-half,

while the transfers to England rose.

In the last two periods the amount transferred to Irish stock has again increased, while that to English stock has dimi-

nished. The reason is the income tax in England.

The sessional papers of 1842 already quoted, stated that Great Britain had repaid £6,200,000, whereas Ireland up to that year had repaid £6,400,000, and has since repaid, as we have seen, nearly another million.



APPENDIX, No. VII.

THE "CHURCH TEMPORALITIES" GRIEVANCE.

THE following is a report on this subject, drawn up by Mr. O'Connell, in 1840:

Report of the National Association of Ireland, upon the chief Grievance of Ireland—that which relates to the Ecclesiastical Revenues.

Your Committee beg leave to report that they are unanimously of opinion, that the most afflicting beyond comparison of all the grievances which the people of Ireland sustain, is to be found in the MISAPPROPRIATION OF THE ECCLESIASTICAL REVENUES OF IRELAND.

The great denominations of Christians—the Catholics, the Episcopalian Protestants, and the Presbyterians, constitute the overwhelming majority of Christian persuasions in the British empire.

In England the majority of the people belong to Episcopalian Protestantism. In Scotland the majority of the inhabitants are Presbyterians; and

In Ireland the majority of the inhabitants, in much greater

proportion, are Catholics.

In Scotland the number of Catholics and Protestant Dissenters have not been enumerated—all that is known with accuracy is, that the Presbyterians are by far the most numerous class of Christians in that country.

In England the Catholics and the Protestant Dissenters have also not been enumerated with accuracy; but it is quite certain that the Episcopalian Protestants are in a decided

majority.

The only data from which a comparative estimate of the Episcopalian Protestants and other Christians can be made in England, consists in this, that the churches of the Episcopalians amount in round numbers to 11,000, and the chapels and meeting-houses of the Catholics, and of the Protestant Dissenters, amount in round numbers to 9,000.

This, as we have said, leaves a decided majority to the Epis-

copalian Protestants.

It should, however, be observed, that wherever there is a Catholic or Dissenting place of worship, there is certainly a congregation; because the chapel or meeting-house could not exist unless there were a congregation. It is not so, however, with the Protestant Episcopalian churches—very many of them were erected in ancient times, and in many places the congregations are totally disproportionate with the number of churches; but after every abatement that upon these facts can be made, it must be admitted that the Episcopalian Protestants form the majority of the Christians in England.

With respect to Ireland, an enumeration has taken place, and the relative numbers have been ascertained. The Episcopalian Protestants are found to be, in round numbers, eight hundred and fifty thousand, the Presbyterians, six hundred and fifty thousand, and the Catholics, six million five hundred thousand. Such were the relative proportions in 1831.

Under these circumstances the natural result would be, that the ecclesiastical state revenues should be appropriated in each country to the church of the majority of the inhabitants, and in England accordingly, these revenues are appropriated to the Protestant Episcopalian church, the church of the majority.

In Scotland also the ecclesiastical state revenues are, and

ought naturally to be, applied to the sustentation of the Presbyterian church, being that of the majority of the Scottish

people.

Upon the same principle it is perfectly clear that the ecclesiastical state revenues of Ireland ought to be applied to the church of the majority of the Irish people.

But in the government of Ireland every thing is anoma-

lous.

The people of England would not endure that the ecclesiastical state revenues should be applied to the church of the minority.

The people of Scotland would not endure that the ecclesiastical state revenues should be applied to the church of the

minority

But the people of Ireland are compelled to endure that the ecclesiastical state revenues of Ireland should be appropriated to the church of a very small minority of the Irish

people.

This simple statement demonstrates at once the gross injustice done to the people of Ireland. It demontrates that that equality, which alone would constitute a real Union between the countries, does not exist. It shows that the Episcopalians in England, and Presbyterians in Scotland, assume and enjoy a practical superiority over the Catholics in Ireland.

Your Committee emphatically assert, that this is the master grievance—the most insulting injustice which Ireland sustains

under the (so called) Union.

The people of Ireland demand the redress of this grievance in the first instance, and before any other. It is a grievance in which they will no longer acquiesce in silence. It is a declaration of the inferiority of the Irish people, to which they will no longer submit without remonstrance. It is a gross and odious insult, superinduced upon a glaring and palpable injustice. It is, in short, a giant evil, not to be longer tolerated, without taking all legal, and peaceable, and constitutional means to procure legislative redress.

If there were any prospect of procuring from the united parliament redress for this giant evil, your Committee would recommend the people of Ireland to petition unanimously and simultaneously for its abolition. But it being futile to the utmost point of absurdity, to expect any such redress from the united parliament, your Committee recommend the most unremitting and strenuous exertions of the people of Ireland to

procure the REPEAL OF THE ACT OF UNION, and the re-establishment of a domestic legislature, in which only the great questions respecting this grievance could be calmly considered and righteously determined.

There is another point of view in which this grievance becomes more prominent in its insulting nature towards the

Catholics of Ireland.

It is this:-

Firstly—The professors of the Presbyterian religion constitute but a small minority, when compared with other denominations of Christians. They cannot in the British empire amount to anything like three millions.

Secondly—The Episcopalian Protestants are calculated at about eight millions, and that calculation is probably over-

rated.

Thirdly—The Catholics of Ireland have had a considerable accession since the last census; that augmentation has probably been attributed, with justice in some measure, to the numbers of other Christians who daily join the church; whatever be the cause, it is likely that the Catholics are now not less than seven millions in Ireland.

The Catholics in Great Britain are estimated at two millions, thus giving the Catholics an aggregate number of nine

millions in Great Britain and Ireland.

If then we look to the empire as a united kingdom, we shall find that the Presbyterians, who are in a complete comparative minority, enjoy the state revenues of the Scottish church; that the Episcopalian Protestants, who are also in a minority, enjoy the state ecclesiastical revenues, not only of England, but of Ireland also; and that the Catholics, who, as a particular persuasion of Christians, are in a majority, contribute to the state ecclesiastical revenues of the three countries, and enjoy no part whatsoever thereof.

In every point of view, therefore, the injustice done to the Catholics of Ireland, is plain, palpable, glaring, and ought not to be endured, without taking all legal means to procure an

adequate remedy.

It has, indeed, been asserted, that the possession of the state ecclesiastical revenues, is essentially necessary to the continuance of the Presbyterian religion in Scotland, and still more necessary, if possible, to the existence of the Episcopalian Protestant church in Ireland.

Your Committee beg leave to remark, that this assertion is

not theirs; that, on the contrary, they are thoroughly convinced, that the persons who make it, inflict the strongest reproach, they should say calumny, upon the Presbyterian and Protestant Episcopalian churches. In fact nothing can be more derogatory to any christian persuasion, than the conviction that its strength consists in MONEY; that the vile mammon of this world is its pabulum vitæ; and that it would cease to exist, so soon as it should cease to be sustained and fed with the national gold.

Your Committee carefully abstain from introducing into this report, any species of polemics; but they respectfully submit this proposition to the christian world: that any sect or persuasion of Christians, whose tenets necessarily require the sustentation of public money, can have no claim upon either the judgment or the sympathy of those who believe that faith is beyond price, and that genuine christianity is too pure to re-

quire the support of filthy lucre.

Your Committee refer all timid Christians differing from the Catholic Church, to the illustrious example that church has given in Ireland to the nations of the earth; and to the demonstration which the Irish Catholics have afforded, of the efficacy of the voluntary principle of support, wherever the religious feeling prevails.

In Ireland the state revenues were spoliated by act of parliament and regal tyranny, from the Catholic Church in that country; but the religion remained, and its votaries were not diminished. It was thus proved that Catholicity had a deeper

basis than aught the wealth of this world can bestow.

In Ireland the churches were desecrated—the altars were plundered—the shrines were violated—the ecclesiastical buildings were strown in ruins upon the soil;—but the religion

remained, and its votaries were not diminished.

Where is the honest and conscientious Protestant who will or can admit, that his own religion has not the same power to resist the effects of the deprivation of the state revenues, which Catholicity in Ireland has exhibited, and gloried in the exhibition.

Again—during centuries of persecution, and at the present moment, the people of Ireland, taken as a nation, the least wealthy in Europe, supports, without any state revenues, a hierarchy perfect in all its parts; four archbishops and twenty-three bishops—in all twenty-seven; deans; archdeacons; vicars generals; prebendaries; parish priests; curates; to the

amount altogether of more than four thousand individuals. Instead of diminishing the numbers of the Catholics, they have considerably augmented during three centuries of an emaciating persecution—the law grinding to the dust what the sword had spared.

Who is it that, in the face of such an experiment as has been made in Ireland, will assert that it is necessary to the existence of a church, with its full hierarchy and its thronging votaries, to lean for support upon the state, and to be supported by state

revenues?

MARK AGAIN the triumph of the VOLUNTARY PRINCIPLE, as it is exhibited in the ecclesiastical buildings in the city of Dublin alone: within the last few years, sums, which (as nearly as they can be calculated) in round numbers may be safely stated thus, have been expended in the city of Dublin:

The Cathedral Church of St. Mary, Marlborough-street,	£43,000
Church of St. Andrew, Westland-row,	21,000
" St. Paul, Arran quay,	12,000
St. Michan,	8,000
,, SS. Michael and John,	6,000
,, St. Catherine,	7,000
,, St. Nicholas,	6,000
Sums collected for intended improvements, or actually ex- pended upon the other parochial churches, say,}	10,000
Church of St. Francis Xavier	8,000
The churches and ecclesiastical buildings in Dublin, of the	-,000
Augustinians, calced Carmelites, discalced Carmelites, Capuchius, Dominicans, and Franciscans, estimated much below the real sum, at	20,000
Five Convents of Sisters of Charity estimated low at	15,000
Three Convents of Carmelite Nuns, say,	9,000
Convent of poor Clares, of Dominican Nuns, and of the Presentation, say,	9,000

There are, besides these, ten schools for boys, instituted by the Educational Monks; and at least sixteen Confraternities for teaching the Christian Doctrine. The expenses under the two latter heads we are unable to calculate; but we have shewn, that in the city of Dublin alone, there has been expended upon the VOLUNTARY PRINCIPLE, in buildings for the spiritual provision and education of Catholics, a sum exceeding £170,000.

Is it not preposterous, that the Irish Catholics, who make such exertions for the sustentation of that religion which they believe to be true, should also be compelled to support a church which they believe to be erroneous? Every man of political integrity must feel, that while England is free from such an oppression, while Scotland is free from such an oppression-Ireland ought NOT to stand alone in the single deformity of being compelled to submit to that oppression!

There are two points upon which your Committee would de-

sire to be emphatically understood; they are these-

First, They do not claim that the ecclesiastical state revenues of Ireland, should be applied to support the church of the majority of the Irish people. Although on principle they might be entitled to make such claim, yet they totally repudiate it.—They totally disclaim any such appropriation. No Protestant could more distinctly denounce that appropriation than the people of Ireland should and would do. It is an appropriation which would essentially injure, currupt, and corrode the religion to which it should be so applied.

Secondly,—Your Committee claim, that the ecclesiastical state revenues should (as the existing vested interests dropped off) be applied for the general benefit of the community; that is, for the support of the poor; for the promotion of education; and in works of charity, applicable equally, and without distinc-

tion, to all sects and persuasions.

There is one topic more to illustrate the grievous injustice done to the Catholic people of Ireland, by the appropriation of the ecclesiastical revenues to that small minority which constitutes the Protestant Established Church in Ireland; it is this-

The Presbyterian Established Church in Scotland, being the church of the majority of the Scottish people, is in possession of the ecclesiastical state revenues in Scotland, although those revenues were founded by their Catholic ancestors for purposes of exclusively Catholic piety and religion—purposes, many of them directly opposite to, and contradictory of, the tenets and

practices of Presbyterianism.

The Episcopalian Protestant Church in England, being the Church of the majority of the English people, is in possession of the ecclesiastical state revenues in England, although those revenues were founded by their Catholic ancestors for purposes of exclusively Catholic piety and religion-purposes, many of them directly opposite to, and contradictory of, the tenets and practices of Episcopalian Protestantism.

Thus, in Scotland and in England, the church of the majority possess ecclesiastical revenues, granted NOT by Presbyterians

or Protestants of any description, but by Catholics.

Whereas in Ireland the church of the majority is that of

the persons who founded the ecclesiastical state revenues-it is the only church able and willing to perform and carry out all the intentions of the donors and founders of those revenuesyet these revenues are taken from the church of the majority of the Irish people, and bestowed by law upon the antagonist church of a small minority of that people!!!

It does, therefore, appear manifest, that every circumstance attending the ecclesiastical state revenues, increases the nature and extent of the grievance on the score of church temporalities,

inflicted upon the Catholic people of Ireland.

Your Committee cannot conclude without once again warning

the people of Ireland—

First—That there is no prospect of obtaining the salutary change they require, from the United Parliament.

Secondly—That the injustice they complain of, can be re-

dressed only by means of the REPEAL OF THE UNION.

Thirdly—That such Repeal must be sought for only by legal and constitutional means—there must not be any outrage, violence, or crime whatsoever. Any outrage, any crime, any illegality, on the part of the Repealers, would give strength to the enemies of Ireland, and would weaken, and ultimately

destroy, the best energies of her friends.

Let us then prosecute our agitation for Repeal, within the law and constitution, with the sanction of all good men, and, we trust, with the blessing of God. Irishmen of every sect and persuasion have an identity of interest in restoring to their country the blessings of a domestic legislature. But above all, the unjust and insulting inequality which the Union inflicts upon Ireland, ought no longer to be borne in silence by Irishmen.

We close by reminding the Association emphatically—

That Scotland does not support the church of the minority in Scotland, and that the Scottish people would not endure such an appropriation of her ecclesiastical revenues.

That England does not support the Church of the minority in England, and that the English people would not endure

such an appropriation of her ecclesiastical revenues.

But that Ireland, on the contrary, suffers this giant, THIS MONSTER EVIL; and the first duty of Irishmen must be to obtain, by constitutional and legal means, its total abolition.

> DANIEL O'CONNELL, Chairman of the Committee.

April, 23, 1840.

All that it is desirable to add to the foregoing, is contained in the following extract from the debate on the motion of Mr. Ward, (M.P. for Sheffield, and at present Secretary to the Admiralty,) relative to the Irish Established Church, June 11, 1844:

"Upon the point of the Church's revenue there was no longer any difference: for his noble friend (Lord Eliot, then Secretary for Ireland) had, with a frankness that did him honor, brought over Mr. Erck, the Ecclesiastical Commissioner, and directed him to give him (Mr. Ward) access to all the documents in his possession, for the express purpose of avoiding the differences that occurred last year in their calculations.

"Last year his (Mr. W	ard's) e	stimate		•••	£552,753	
Lord Eliot's		•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	432,023
Difference,		•••				•••	120,730

"Both of these estimates were very much under the mark. He believed he might take the

"Episcopal Revenues, as				£151,1	27	
Deans and Prebends,	•••	•••		34,4		
Minor Canons and Vicars		•••	•••	10,5		
The second second second second	,	***				£196,133
						2100,100
Parochial Tithes,	•••	••	•••	486,7	85	
Episcopal	•••		***	9,5	515	
Received by dignitaries,		• • •		24,3	360	
• 6						520,660
Deduct 25 per cent for R	ent-charg	e,	***	•••		130,165
Remain,				•••		390,495
Add Episcopal Revenues,	(Tithes	deduc	ted, £3	33,875,)	•••	162,258
						552,753
Glebes, as valued by Eccle	esiastical	Comm	issione	rs.		80,000
Ministers' money,	***		***		•••	10,000
Demised tithes						8,000
Dellinou titiles,	***	•••	•••	***	•••	0,000
Total prese	nt incom	e,		461	•••	650,753

[&]quot;Out of this, 750,000 Episcopalians (deducting 100,000 for 'Wesleyans,' from the return of 1834) were to be provided for—being 18s. or 20s. a-head, for the spiritual instruction of each!

"Besides the above monies there had been

For Arrears of Tithe,	• • • •	•••		***		£1,000,000 595,000	
" Churches, … Glebe-houses, …	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	366,000	
" Church Education Gra	ints, (Kildare-s	st. So	ciety, &c.	&c.)	1,378,000	
Making a total of	•••	•••	•••	***	•••	3,339,000	

"Mr. Shaw (who followed Lord Eliot, the latter replying to Mr. Ward, but not disputing his calculations) said, 'with regard to the amount of present revenues of the Church in Ireland, he did not materially differ from the hon. gentleman...... Death, and other changes, from time to time must make some alteration, according to the moment the return was taken, and the gross should not be confounded with the nett income....... It was gratifying to him that on the fact of figures there was no substantial difference between them.

"He (Mr. Shaw) made the nett

"He (Mr. Shaw) made the nett		
Income of the Beneficed Clergy	£320,350	19 10
Their Income and that of their assistant Curates	377,050	12 5
He allowed in round numbers for the permanent reduced Bishoprics	60,000	a-year.
The Clergy,	370,000	12
And the ultimate property of the Ecclesiastical Com-	20,000	"
missioners applicable to churches in lieu of Cess, as calculated in 1836, by Mr. Finlaison, at about,	100,000	,,
Making the total of every description of future Church property, as nearly as possible	£550,000	p anm."

This sum appeared to Mr. Shaw, quite a *small* provision for the church of 6 or 700,000 persons, in a country where upwards of seven millions support their own.

Mr. Ward's estimate is far more likely to be correct, he having had all the documents before him. While suspicion must attach to that of Mr. Shaw, if only from the circumstance of his having had to give up moving for a return of the *real* amount of the bishops' income, from their refusal to assist in having it made out.

MISCELLANEA.

Mr. W. J. Battersby, in his most pains-taking and pa-Battersby's triotic work, "The Repealer's Manual; or, Absenteeism Manual, 1833. and the Union re-considered;" printed in Dublin in the year 1833, has a chapter on the question of "What was the original design of the legislative Union?" He states his opinion, that it was "a determination to render Ireland subservient to England."

The late Chief Justice Bushe stated the animus of the measure more forcibly, but not more truly. He said that it was "an intolerance of Irish prosperity."

Mr. Battersby quotes, as his witnesses in support of his charge, Sir William Petty, Sir Matthew Deaker, Primate Boulter, Postlethwayt, in his work entitled "Britain's Commercial Interest," printed in Dublin, 1767, &c. &c.

From Postlethwayt he quotes this passage:-

"In lieu of the advantages Ireland would receive from a Union, Postle-thwayt on she should give England at least £500,000 annually. Sup- a Union. posing that Ireland, by exerting her competition in trade against foreign rivals, should thereby gain a nett million per annum; would it not be well worth her while to give up to England one-half for the sake of the other?......As England does already possess no inconsiderable share of the lands of Ireland, so the Union would prove an effectual method to vest the rest in her; for as the riches of Ireland would chiefly return to England, she continuing the seat of empire, the Irish landlords would be little better than tenants to her for allowing them to make the best of their estates!"

Effect in

Smollet.

Dublin of

With the indignant ejaculation, after the above, of, "There is love of Ireland for you!" Mr. Battersby goes on as follows:-

"The infamous policy of those who suggested this Union on the above grounds, became so much the subject of alarm to the Irish people, shortly after the publication of Postlethwayt's book, that Smollet gives us the following account of the opposition, which the mere report of it created in Dublin.

"After proving (in the 16 ch. p. 75-6) the loyalty of the

Irish Catholics under unparalleled insult, he adds:

"Although no traces of disaffection to his Majesty's family, appeared on this trying occasion, it must nevertheless be acmere report knowledged, that a spirit of dissatisfaction broke out with of Union, as related by extraordinary violence among the populace of Dublin.

"The present Lord Lieutenant was not remarkably popular

in his administration!

"He had bestowed a marked favour upon a gentleman whose person was obnoxious to many people in that kingdom, and perhaps failed in that affability and condescension which a free and generous nation expects to find in the character of him to

whose rule they are subjected.

"Whether the offence taken at his deportment had created enemies to his person, or that the nation in general began to entertain doubts and jealousies of the government's designs, certain it is, great pains were taken to propagate a belief among the lower order of people, that an Union would soon be effected between Great Britain and Ireland; in which case this last kingdom would be deprived of its parliament and independency, and be subjected to the same taxes that are levied upon the people of England.

"This notion inflamed the populace to such a degree, that they assembled in a prodigious multitude, and searched for the Journals, which, had they been found, they would have com-

mited to the flames.

"Not content with this outrage, they compelled the members of both houses whom they met in the streets, to take an oath that they would never consent to such an Union, or give any

vote contrary to the true interest of Ireland.

"Divers coaches belonging to obnoxious persons were destroyed, and their horses killed; and a gibbet was erected for one gentleman in particular, who narrowly escaped the ungovernable rage of those riotous insurgents.

"A body of horse and infantry were drawn out on this occasion, in order to overawe the multitude, which at night

dispersed of itself."

Dalrymple, in his "Memoirs," (4to edit., vol. 3, p. 48,) gives an account of a curious aneedote concerning the Union, the substance of which is, that in 1776 it was intended that the Earl of Rochford should succeed the Earl of Harcourt as Lord Lieutenant of Ireland; that Lord Rochford received his Majesty's note to that effect; that one of the leading conditions of that appointment was to bring about an Union with England; that on conversing with Lord Harcourt his opinion was, that to attempt an Union with Ireland in time of war was insanity-that the minds of the Irish should be long prepared for it-that no Union should be attempted unless the wish for it came from Ireland, and not even then, unless there were a sufficient body of troops there to keep the mad men in order; that the two great objections to it were, loss of money by the absentees, and loss of importance by diminishing the peers and commoners; that seeing the difficulties, Lord Rochford declined the intended honor. Thus we find the idea of the Union originating with the Crown or Cabinet of England, 23 years before the measure was carried; and we find the anticipated evils it would entail upon Ireland urged as the reason why it could not then be adopted. We find that Earl Chatham also in 1763 had the Union in his eye, not as a "healing measure" for Ireland, but as beneficial to Great Britain.

We now turn to a few opinions and declarations on Declararecord, against the Union, uttered at the time it was pro-tions against the Union. posed.

· We quote first from the debate of the Irish bar, at a Debate of meeting held by them in 1799, to petition against the Bar (Sunday, 9th Dec., 1799,)

the Irish on the

That every possible modification of an Union necessarily in- Mr. P. Burvolved evils not to be compensated for...... The merging rowes. of our representatives in an assembly, where they will be more than quadrupled, and where, if even unanimous, they could have little influence. The perpetual existence of the united legislature in another country, to the influence of whose wishes and opinions they will be subject. The enormous increase of

absenteeism—of taxes—of our national debt.....(Mr. P. Burrowes.)

Mr. Barnes.

......To his own knowledge, and he had been himself a seaman, half the strength of the navy of England were drawn from Ireland; and yet, English captains have had the insolence to say, they would have no more Irishmen than mainmasts!To all the world, except the East Indies, we already have a right to trade; and a Union would give us no more than we have now of that trade.—(Mr. Barnes.)

Mr. Goold.

to the will and interests of the British merchant; the British merchant must for ever be subservient to his own interest..... I argue from the necessary operations of the human passion on the human conduct, when I say that the British merchant will force the British minister to be British, even on the subject of Irish affairs. And when the question of self-interest once situation, as well might you expect from the oyster the sagacity of human intellect; as well might you expect from the famished tiger, the sympathy of human feeling; as from the British minister and British merchant, a due and impartial consideration, or a feeling and honest conduct, touching the affairs of this our country.—(Mr. Goold.)

Mr. Orr.

......In the present state of the connexion, England cannot offer an equivalent for the surrender of our constitution. Formerly we were in a different situation. Our parliament was controlled by that of England, and we had no trade or manufacture but the making and exporting linen cloth. The direct importation of goods from the West Indies, rum excepted, without landing them in England, was prohibited, as also the exportation of woollen goods.—(Mr. Orr.)

The Debate arose on the motion of Mr. William Saurin :-"That a measure of Legislative Union, is an innovation highly dangerous and improper to propose at the present juncture of

the country."

Amendment—to adjourn a month.

For adjournment, 166 Against

Resolution carried.

Our next is the opinion of the celebrated CHARLES James Fox on the subject.

At a meeting of the Whig Club, May 7, 1800, at the Crown See the Constituand Anchor Tavern, in London-Mr. Fox in the chair, sup-tion, or ported by the Duke of Norfolk, Lord Holland, &c. &c.

Mr. Fox said......The whole scheme (Union) went 13, 1800. upon that fulse and abominable presumption, that we could C. J. Fox. legislate better for the Irish, than they could do for themselves-a principle founded upon the most arrogant despotism and tyranny. There was not a more clear axiom in the science of politics, than that man was his own natural governor, and that he ought to legislate for himself. No other being could enter into his feelings, or have anything common in sympathy with his nature; and therefore the legislature of a people must flow out of, and be identified with, the people themselves. It was idle to talk to Ireland of the word Union, since there could be no such thing as a real Union, on an equal footing, between countries so disproportionate and unequal. Could the Irish believe that in this connexion they were to have an equal and availing voice in legislating for England, as the English were in legislating for Ireland? There was no maxim more true in philosophy or in politics than the great moral doctrine, "Do as you would be done by." Examine this measure by that rule. Can the Irish bring themselves to believe that they will have any share or influence in legislating for England? Take it on the other side. What Englishman would submit to see his destiny regulated and his affairs conducted by persons chosen for Belfast or Limerick? He believed that even in the present temper of the people of England, they would not submit to the project of the Union, if they thought that the Irish members were to have any influence on British legislature. What then we could not suffer, we ought not to impose.

We ought not to presume to legislate for a nation, in whose feelings and affections, wants and interests, opinions and prejudices, we have no sympathy. It can only be attempted on the principle of the most arrogant despotism. It was an attack on the pride of a gallant nation, and was ealculated to reduce them to the state, as many of their own patriots had said, of a dependent province; and it was, in his opinion, a most audacious attempt, after all that appeared in that country, since it was adding insult to injury, to call it a measure in which the Irish acquiesced. When martial law was proclaimed, to tell them that you will do this because you will it, and to denominate the forced silence of the country a consent, is to add

insult to injury. He had thought it his duty to say so much, as misrepresentations were abroad as to his sentiments on this subject; and he was desirous of informing all who might take any interest in his opinions on the matter, that he certainly was of opinion, that the principles of Whiggism alone were the safe, true, and only ground on which a nation could be governed. The chief of these was, that the sovereignty of the people was the only legitimate source of that representative system, by which a nation could be secured in its rights and liberties.

Orange Lodges. The next matter we have to throw in, is relative to the opposition of Orange Lodges to the Union. The resolutions that follow, are taken from the newspapers of the year 1800, particularly that entitled "The Constitution, or Anti-Union Evening Post."

RESOLUTIONS AGAINST THE UNION.

Orange Lodge No. 883, at Newtownbarry, 16th Feb., 1800.

There were lrish HEARTS among the Orangemen in 1800 "That Orangemen ought to come forward as Orangemen and Irishmen, and declare their sentiments against a legislative Union, which now, or at any other time, would be of the most fatal and pernicious consequences to the real liberty of Ireland.

"EDMUND BEATTY, Master.

"WILLOUGHBY BUSTARD, Dep.

"ALEX. M'CLAUGHRY, Sec."

Lodges Nos. 780 and 785, Dublin, 11th March, 1800.

"That the constitution of 1782, under which our country has advanced to greatness with uncommon rapidity, is that which as Orangemen we have sworn to defend, and will inviolably maintain.......And we are determined to co-operate with our fellow-subjects in every legal and proper method to oppose so destructive a measure.

"J. CHARLES, Secretary."

Lodge 391.—Wattle Bridge, County Fermanagh, 1st March, 1800.

"That strongly attached to the constitution of 1782, a settlement ratified in the most unequivocal manner, so far as the faith of nations is binding, we should feel ourselves criminal were we to remain silent while an attempt is made to extinquish it.

"That imprest with every loyal sentiment towards our gracious sovereign, we trust that the measure of a legislative Union, which is contrary to the sense of all Orangemen and

the nation at large, will be relinquished.

"John Moore, Master."

Lodge 428-Newtown-Butler, 18th March, 1800.

"That no lover of his-country could have proposed a measure fraught with such destructive consequences; and that all supporters of it should be execrated by their fellow-subjects and by posterity.

"John Corry, Master."

Lodges 382 and 907.

"That as Irishmen, we feel insulted by the degrading arguments held forth in favour of the Union, as if the Lords and Commons were so weak, helpless, and ignorant, that they can neither support nor legislate for Ireland without British aid."

Orange Lodge 652.

- "At a full Meeting of Lodge 652, held in Dublin, on Monday evening, 3rd of March, 1800, the following resolutions were unanimously adopted:—
- "Resolved unanimously—That as a loyal and Protestant Association, attached as we are to our most gracious sovereign and happy constitution, we cannot, without the utmost indignation and regret, see a resolution from the Grand Lodge, en-

joining us to silence on the momentous question of a Legislative Union.

"Resolved—That sorry as we are to differ in opinion from the Grand Lodge, we should consider our silence as being accessory to the annihilation of that constitution which, as Orangemen and Freemen, we have solemnly sworn to support.

"Resolved—That we consider the friends of that abominable measure—a Union with Great Britain—as the greatest enemies to our most gracious sovereign—a measure which would destroy our existence as a nation, and eventually involve the rights,

liberties, and even the lives of the people of Ireland.

"Resolved—That, from the above considerations, we solemnly protest against that destructive measure, and do call upon our brother Orangemen by every legal means to support that constitution for which we risked our lives and properties in the hour of danger.

"G. S., Deputy Master.
"H. F., Secretary."

Lodge No. 500.

"At a full meeting of the Orange Lodge No. 500, held in Mountmellick, the 4th day of February, 1800, the following address was unanimously agreed to:—

"To ALL BROTHER ORANGEMEN.

"Conscious as we are of our loyalty to his Majesty George the Third, and of our attachment to the happy constitution of this kingdom as established in 1782, we have beheld with surprise and concern an address from the Grand Lodge to all Orangemen, entreating them to be silent on a question whereby that constitution is vitally attacked, and whereby the loyalty of the most valuable part of our countrymen is shaken or endangered. We cannot think it the duty of an Orangeman to submit implicitly in all cases of the utmost moment, to the directions of a lodge which is principally composed of persons who are under a certain influence, which is exerted against the rights of Ireland; and while a lodge under such influence, shall give the law to all Orangemen, we fear that our dearest interests will be betrayed. We therefore protest against its injunctions of silence, and declare, as Orangemen, as freeholders, as Irishmen, in all the several relations in which we are placed, that we consider the extinction of our separate legislature as the extinction of the

Irish nation. We invite our Brother Orangemen to elect without delay a Grand Lodge, which shall be composed of men of tried integrity, who shall be unplaced, unpensioned, unbought, and who shall avow this best qualification for such a station, that they will support the independence of Ireland and the Constitution of 1782.

"Signed,

" HENRY DEERY, Master.

"John Robinson, Deputy-Master.

"ABRAHAM HYLAND, Secretary."

Orange Lodge 651.

" At a numerous Meeting of the Brethren, it was

"Resolved unanimously—That we deeply lament the necessity which compels us to differ from the Grand Lodge, as we conceive no body of men whatsoever have so just a right to take into serious consideration the subject of a legislative Union with Great Britain as Orangemen, who have associated and sworn for the sole purpose of supporting their king and constitution.

"That we see with unspeakable sorrow an attempt made to deprive us of that constitution, of our trade, our rising prosperity, and our existence as a nation, and reducing us to the de-

grading situation of a colony to England.

"That we consider this measure but an ill return to men who clung to that constitution in the hour of danger and distress, and risked their lives and properties in its support, to have it snatched from them almost at the moment they saved it.

"Signed,

"George Gonne, Master.
"Samuel H. Smith, Pro Sec."

Dublin, 19th Feb., 1800.

There were resolutions of a similar nature passed by Lodges 184, 467, 413, 167, 544, and many others.

With regard to the legislative Union between Scotland and England, briefly alluded to in our text, a few remarks may here be added.

Two very angry disputes between those countries, tended mainly to the adoption of the measure in question. First, the dispute in matters of trade; second, that as to the succession to the throne.

The Scotch had attempted a settlement on the Isthmus of Darien, half military and half commercial. The commercial object was, to facilitate the operations and transactions of an East India Company, which they were seeking to establish in rivalry of England. The latter country stopped at nothing to crush this attempt—prevented her own merchants from taking any share in it, and used influence in foreign ports to hinder subscription lists from being opened to speculators there. The supplies sent from Scotland to the brave and hardy band of adventurers who had gone to Darien to establish the settlement, were stopped on the seas, and the hostility of Spain against the attempt was inflamed and encouraged. The result was, the defeat of the attempt, and nearly total destruction of those who had made it. Not content with this, England kept a fleet of twenty-four men of war at sea, for the express purpose of cutting up the commerce of Scotland with France. The Scotch had fitted out cruizers to endeavour to protect their trade, and make retaliations on that of England; the ship Worcester was taken by them, and her commander, Green, being recognized as one who had formerly been guilty of acts of piracy, was tried, condemned, and executed.

The dispute respecting the succession was scarcely a more grievous matter of difference. The Scotch parliament delayed the "Act of Security" two whole sessions; and when they did at length pass it in the third session, they did so, adding a clause, providing that the successor to the throne should not be king of both kingdoms. Their object in this was, to endeavour to drive England to terms in matters of trade.

The English parliament resented this by an act (in the session of 1704) entitled an act "to prevent the mischief's arising to England from the act of security in Scotland;" and thereupon proceeded to the extremities we have alluded to.

Powerful secret influences were set at work to corrupt the Scottish parliament, and the general poverty of the country gave these corrupting influences great advantage. We have had quite enough to disgust us in the details of the corruption of our own parliament, to incline us to delay on that of the Scottish legislature; and therefore close the subject with simply repeating the historical fact, that the English artifices and designs were successful.



CONCLUDING REMARKS.

THE fearful extent and pressure, this winter, (1846-7,) of The present distress, the popular distress, should now engross attention: even (1846-7) en forces consideration did not involve so entirely, and, in fact, sideration of the evils of render so imperative, the consideration of the evils which the Union. have resulted from the Union, and of the nature of the remedies to be applied to them.

It is owing to the Union, that Ireland has been reduced to such a state, as that the failure of a single article of food has plunged her whole population into utter destitution. Other countries are suffering from the same failure: but in none of them has it occasioned the same misery; because in none was there the same entire dependence upon the potato.

Why did this dependence exist in Ireland? Assuredly not by reason of any depravity of taste. The Irish are, of course, sharers in the instinct which impels the human and the brute creation alike, to seek for the best food.

Simply then, the forced economy of miserable poverty drove them down to the potato—as cheaper than other articles of sustenance; and further still, down even to the worst species of the potato itself—that which has been known by the designation of the "lumper."

In other countries, the national resources are developed—Other countries have the people are allowed to reap the profits of their labour resources to fall back the classes above them are compelled (or have induce-upon.

ments) to fulfil, at least with average fidelity, their duties to the community. The consequence is, that the working classes have ordinarily in their hands the means of bettering their condition; and that a casualty like the present, will have no worse effect than to narrow for the time the circle of their little comforts.

Ireland has none.
Why not?

In Ireland the national resources are undeveloped and neglected—the people are left at the mercy of their landlords, who deny them any profit from their toils—the classes above the people are not only not compelled to fulfil social duties, nor in any way encouraged so to do, but are actually encouraged, nay tempted, to neglect and abandon those duties.

The ambitious man, the man of business, the man of pleasure, alike have their goals and objects out of Ireland. The first, if he would seek that honourable distinction to which it is the right of every citizen to aspire in the service of the state, has no theatre for his efforts at home, since the taking away of the Irish Parliament. To England he must go, and in the English Parliament he must labour, making to himself friends and adherents amongst Englishmen.

The man of business finds a poor and most limited market for his enterprize in this country—he must struggle, at a thousand disadvantages, with the long-established and widely connected English capitalist, if he attempt the home supply; and in the foreign trade his only hope is when permitted to share as an humble partner or correspondent in the magnificent undertakings of the merchant princes of England.

The man of pleasure speedily exchanges the thin and fading streets of a city that, like Venice, may be said to "die daily," for the rich attractions and numberless pleasures and amusements of London, with its dazzling court and its glittering nobility.

Thus a very large proportion of the monied capital of Ireland, whether in rents or trade investments, is drained away; and the drain re-acts upon its causes, by further diminishing the inducements and the occupations which, if there were a healthy circulation of money through this country, would spring up to engage the owners of that capital to remain at home.

Enterprize thus nipped in the bud—industry without its due scope, and without its due reward—nay, without safety for its commonest profits and returns: owing to the almost inevitable abuse of the unlimited powers the Union Parliaments have given to the impoverished landlords of this impoverished country:—it was inevitable that the people should descend—in fact, they were driven down, to the very lowest point in the scale of existence. Driven to the potato because of inability to purchase better food, that inability of course prevents their purchasing a substitute for the potato, now that the latter has so utterly failed.

In this emergency, forced and extreme measures have become necessary. What property is yet of value in the country is being heavily charged for the maintenance of the population. The state, too, has to step largely in to the rescue—providing all the funds immediately; and necessarily a large proportion in absolute and permanent gift.

Passing, for the present, all other considerations with having to respect to this state of things, one reflection presses here—step in to provide for namely, that while the state coffers are thus open to stay distress, this the immediate ruin, we have a brief—a very brief and very moment to fleeting—but still a breathing place to look around us, and a better condecide, if we can, upon the means by which to prevent the things for recurrence of the present emergency.

The problem here involved, difficult and intricate in itself, about. is rendered yet more complicated, and, at the same time, will not go more urgent, by the considerations that while we are meditother to their for-

the future is to be brought

tion.

mer strug-gling condi- tating and debating, the people will be getting accustomed to constant employment, good wages, and good food. The change must be total and sweeping indeed that shall ensure to them a continuance of these three: for it can never be supposed that they will quietly submit, after the present starvation is provided for, to return to any thing like their old condition of scanty and occasional employment—wages most insufficient—food wretched and precarious.

What are the proposed remeWhat, then, are the measures proposed for this end?

1st.—The Times—backed by the large amount of public lst.—"Poor opinion in England, which that paper is known to represent-advocates-elamorously, violently, and with its usual tone of insult and contempt for Irish opinion-"an extended system of Poor Laws."

2nd.—Reclamation of

2nd.—The Whig Government is understood to consider waste lands. the reclamation of Irish Waste Lands as an efficient remedy; and the Conservatives are apparently disposed to acquiesce in the experiment.

As to the first.

In the foregoing, are comprised all the suggestions that have come from those having influence, direct or indirect, over the management of our affairs. Our own plan of remedy is THE REPEAL.

See Sketch of English Poor Laws, p. 405.

Appended to this article is a brief historical sketch of Poor Laws in England: - which certainly will not be found to contain much to recommend their permanent and extended adoption in Ireland. Referring to that sketch for the arguments that experience supplies against Poor Laws. we shall notice here only a few obvious points of objection, which must suggest themselves to the least informed thinker.

Where would we get money for an extended system?

Where is the money to come from to maintain an "extended system of Poor Laws?" Our present limited system is found most expensive. The cost of "machinery alone" absorbs not very far from one-half of the entire expenditure. And yet the machinery is of course more likely

to be economically managed under the present Workhouse system of relief, than under a system of combined Out and In-door Relief.

That Poor Laws create money in a country, no one pretends. They therefore deal only with the money already in hands—redistributing it, with great and inevitable waste by the way.

But it is said by some theorists, (uninformed of England's If the 43rd of Elizabeth bitter experience of her Poor Laws, under whatever shape was a good act, why tried,) that the law of Elizabeth which ordered the paupers does it not subsist in to be "set on work" ought to be established in this coun-England? try; and that the profits of their labour would greatly supply for the cost of their maintenance.

To this there are two answers. First, that England would not have foregone this law herself, if its operation had really been beneficial.

Second,—That the moment a pauper's labour becomes Pauper must not be a rire-productive, he is established as a rival, in the labour val to the independent market, to the independent labourer or workman. latter therefore has actually to contribute, by the payment of his own share of the rates, to the maintenance of a rival who narrows and perchance annihilates his own profits.

One general reflection may be made on this subject—that Poor Laws the certainty of a house of refuge in old age, sickness, or des- improvititution brought on by misconduct—must inevitably weaken weaken the spirit of provident industry and careful economy in the working man's mind; and especially so in a country like this, where it requires his utmost and most painful efforts to procure a miserable subsistence.

The facility, too, of getting rid of aged, sick, or otherwise destitute relatives, is a fearful temptation to the violation or non-regard of filial and family duties.

We conclude our brief comment upon the Times' nostrum Impossible to reduce for Ireland, of "Extended Poor Laws," with this remark :- the Irish

paupers to any state be more comfortable than that of the independent labourer.

that the ordinary poverty of the labouring classes in Ireland, that will not is so pinching, that it is not easy to imagine any treatment of paupers in a workhouse, or otherwise, which shall not make their condition better, in point of physical comforts, than that of the independent workman or labourer; and thereby dangerously increase the temptation to the latter to abandon all struggle, and throw himself and his family upon the parish-rates. That this has not already occurred is owing simply to the "limitations complained of by the Times," and the other Poor Law advocates, in the existing law, which, in cases where relief is given, restrict it to residents in the workhouse.

Once increase the facilities of claiming relief, and supply it to people residing in their own homes, and for one who now applies, a hundred and a thousand will then be found. And the innumerable frauds which it has been found impossible to check, under any system of out-door relief, in England, will add their weight to the intolerable burthen thus created, to break down utterly and entirely the spirit of industry, providence, and independence amongst the impoverished millions of Ireland.

Second plan, reclamation of waste lands.

We now come to the second remedial plan proposed—viz., that of the reclamation of the waste lands of Ireland; and location upon them of the destitute and unemployed.

No one disputes that which the reports of several Government Commissioners and Parliamentary Committees assert, namely, the great facilities which exist in Ireland, for the essaying of this proposed remedy. The Irish waste lands, especially the bog lands, are peculiarly reclaimable: and wherever individual enterprise has been properly applied to them, it has found an ample return.

But as a general measure for relief of the distressed population of Ireland the following leading objects suggest themselves at once :---

First-The slowness of the remedy. Something of im- Too slow a mediate application is wanting: for perishing men cannot wait. The annual increase of population would outstrip the Population would outstrip the quickest process of land reclamation.

strip it.

Second—The derangement of industry throughout the The new country. Every man who had, or fancied he had, (and attract people from the many who neither had, nor fancied it,) any reason for discontent with his present position, would turn his eyes to-gration. wards the state reclamations, and propose to himself to seek his fortune, as it were, by tendering himself for location on the ground newly brought in.

Third—A very large number of those who would otherwise supply the annual tide of emigration, would remain at home, with the view of getting holdings on these lands. The Irish emigrant is known to be more attached to the native soil, than the emigrant of any other country; and not only will those who otherwise contemplated emigration, stay at home to compete for the new lands, but many who have not succeeded well in America, will be induced to come back with the same object.

Fourth—An extensive, complicated, and particular code Their management of laws will be indispensable to keep the reclaimed lands in would be intricate, the small lots which are contemplated; and which are necessary, if the plan is to lighten the pressure upon the land now in cultivation, and to ameliorate the condition of the agricultural population generally. English public speakers and writers are continually deploring the tendency which property has in England to get into large masses; and if this tendency exist in England, despite the better means of the lower orders to take and retain land, how much greater is it not in Ireland, where there is such wretched poverty.

The cottier system will, in fact, be but extended, not Their results remedied; and the dangerous precedent of state inter- an extension ference, on an extended scale, with the rights of private evils.

owners will have been established with much intricacy of legislation and arrangement, and without any permanent. and very little, if any, temporary remedy, for the agrarian evils of Ireland's condition.

Reclamation of waste efficient where done by private enterprize.

We are not to be understood by any means as decrying or waste lands is only the reclamation of waste lands, where undertaken in the legitimate course of enterprize, by private parties; or even where tried on a partial scale by the government for a particular purpose, whether of experiment or otherwise. benefits of adding to the cultivable land of a country are too obvious to be disputed as an abstract proposition. we say, and maintain, that as a great state expedient, whereby generally, or to any large extent, the condition of a whole people is expected to be changed for the better, it would miserably disappoint its projectors; and miserably and most dangerously disappoint the expectations of those it was intended to benefit.

Condemning then the two plans we have been speaking of-the first, as any remedy at all, and the second in its alleged quality as a general and permanent remedy, the duty is upon us to enunciate our remedy.

We look to something that shall naturally stimulate the The only We look to something that shall naturally stimulate the real remedy industry and enterprize of the country, and call out her resources. We look to what shall check the deranging and ruinous drain of money from her, and cause a healthy and active circulation of that vital fluid of the body politic. We look to what shall give rich customers at home, to the artizan and agricultural population, for their goods and their produce-and finally shall ensure to these, and to all other interests in Ireland, the long lost advantage of the wise care and overseeing of a home legislature, able and willing to devote its time and attention to those interests, and possessed of full, accurate, and minute information respecting their condition and requirements.

It would be but re-writing what we have embodied in various parts of this work already, were we to delay to show how directly each and every one of these benefits to Ireland would result speedily and necessarily from the Repeal of the Union.

We therefore have discharged ourselves of the onus of enunciating a large, permanent, and entirely efficacious remedy for the perennial wretchedness of Ireland; and those who would dispute the efficiency and propriety of our remedy, incur that obligation themselves. Up to this time certainly, neither English writer nor speaker has attempted to discharge it; and the period for cool discussion is slipping with fatal rapidity away.

4 -71

SKETCH

THE HISTORY OF POOR LAWS

IN ENGLAND.

"LEGISLATION for the Poor" in England, began in no English poor laws origikindly feelings towards them. The English Poor En-nated in a quiry Commissioners of 1833, state in their report, that and restrictive spirit "the great object of early pauper legislation seems to have towards the people." been the repression of vagrancy." The feudal lords sought to restrain their vassals from flying to corporate towns to escape their thraldom, and find protection under the municipal privileges. To remedy this, the "statute of labourers" was passed in 1351.

By it not only the personal liberty of the agricultural population was put under severe restraints, but their wages were sought to be definitively settled and fixed. In the years 1376 and 1378, complaints were renewed in parliament, of the escape of vassals, and their finding protection in corporate towns, and this, notwithstanding several acts of Edward the Third, by which it was vainly endeavoured to enforce the statute of labourers. This iniquitous sta-

tute was found, like all such, quite inoperative for the end for which it was intended; but at the same time copiously productive of misery to the wretched people.

The reign of Richard the Second, and the succeeding reigns, present a long list of acts more or less restrictive of personal liberty, and more or less interfering with industry. The natural consequence of this unholy crusade of the rich against the poor followed—the lower classes, met at every step by searching and grinding tyranny, either gave up, or were forced greatly to relax, their exertions for subsistence, and the land was crowded with the destitute and the discontented. Then the harsh and despotic spirit which dictated these ruinous restrictions, got full scope, and vagrancy was punished by laws of which it has been well said, that, "with the single exception of scalping, they equalled the worst atrocities ever practised by the North American Indians upon their prisoners."* Lashing "until the body be bloody"—boring, with a hot iron "the compass of an inch through the gristle of the ear"-branding "in the face, and on the shoulder"-"cropping the ears"-" chaining"-" slavery for two years," and, in case of attempts to escape, "slavery for life"—and "death as a felon"—these were the mild and paternal methods of treating the poorer classes, that marked the earlier history of poor laws; and that indeed continued, with not very extensive modifications, to be used until not a very remote period from our own time.

The poor mainly supported by the religious orders.

Under this cruel regime the only friends the poor man had, were the religious in the monasteries, convents, and abbeys; where abundant charity was freely given them. The commissioners whom the rapacious Henry the 8th appointed to enquire into the state of these establishments,

^{*} Sir F. M. Eden's History of the Poor, Vol. I.

sent him with their report an earnest recommendation that the subjects of their enquiries should not be dissolved, because of the good they did the poor; and when subsequently a bill was brought into parliament for their dissolution, it contained a promise that their revenues should continue to be devoted to purposes of charity. But this promise was at once broken, when the end for which it was made was attained; and the great fountains of charity being thus sealed up, private benevolence, in the wretched state of the industrial enterprize of England at that period, was insufficient to meet the calls upon it, and so charity "by act of parliament" began.

The following is a brief summary of the nature and pro-Poor Laws a bad substitute for their trief for their c. 25, (1536,) recites a previous act, assigning a limit charity. within which to beg-and adds, that no provision is made for the support of the impotent, nor for setting and keeping on work able-bodied beggars. It enacts that the head officers of every city, town, shire, and parish, shall attend to these two matters, under a penalty of 20s. a month on each defaulting parish. Voluntary alms to be collected by them for these purposes; and the clergy are to incite their flocks to charity.

Alms-giving, other than contributions to the parish com- 27, Henry 2, mon box, is forbidden under forfeiture of ten times the amount.

A sturdy beggar to be whipped the first time, his right ear cropped the second time, and on conviction of a third offence, to be put to death as a felon and an enemy of the commonwealth.

The 1st Edward VI. c. 3, (1547,) recites that "partly by foolish pity and mercy of them which should have seen the aforesaid goodly laws executed, and partly from the perverse nature and long accustomed idleness of the

persons given to loitering, the said goodly statutes have had small effect, and idle and vagabond persons, being unprofitable members, or rather enemies of the commonwealth, have been suffered to remain and increase, and yet so do." It therefore enacts that able bodied persons who do not apply to honest labour, or offer to serve even for meat and drink, shall be branded with the letter V. on the shoulder, and be adjudged a slave for two years, to any person who shall demand him; and shall be fed on bread and water, and kept to work by beating, chaining, &c., &c. Runaways to be made slaves for life, and to be further branded on the cheek—and where incorrigible, to suffer death.

There were modifications and alterations of this statute of various kinds until 1515, when the 5th and 6th Edward VI., c. 2, was passed, afterwards repeated verbatim by the 2nd and 3rd Philip and Mary, c. 5, (1555,) preserving all the chaining and beating provisions; and enacting that certain collectors should, on the Sunday after Whitsuntide, "gently ask every man and woman" what they of their charity "would give weekly to the poor"—and should distribute the weekly collections "after such sort that the more impotent may have the more help, and such as can get part of their living less, and be put on such labour as they can do, but none openly to beg"—under the old penalties.

Any one refusing to give such alms, is to be "gently exhorted," first by the ministers and churchwardens—and if refractory, to be then "sent for" by the bishop, who is to take order for his reformation."

The 5th Elizabeth, c. 3, (1563,) gives the bishop power to send him before the magistrates, who are first to exhort—and failing that, to tax him, according to their good "discretion."

The commissioners quote the next statute, 14th Elizabeth, c. 5, (1572,) "as a proof of the inefficacy of former statutes, and as showing how short an interval elapsed" between the giving power to tax a chance individual, and the general taxing power that has since subsisted.

Its preamble gives a frightful picture of the increase of pauperism, and the savage spirit of the legislation against it; and the statute itself re-enacts and confirms all the former severities. It provides the general taxing power before mentioned, at the "good discretion of the justices"—the latter also to apportion the relief, and to set the able-bodied paupers upon work.

Passing some minor statutes repeating and confirming others, we come to the much-talked-of 43rd Elizabeth, c. 2, (1601.) It provided—

Overseers of the poor to "raise, by taxation of every inhabitant, &c. &c., in their parishes, a convenient stock of flax, hemp, wool, thread, iron, and other necessary ware, and stuff, to set the poor on work—and also, competent sums for necessary relief of the lame, impotent, old, blind, and such other among them, being poor and not able to work, and also for the putting out of apprentices," &c. &c. &c.

Severe penalties against defaulters-

"Section VII. The father, grandfather, mother, grandmother, and children of every poor, old, blind, lame, and impotent person, being of sufficient ability, shall, of their own charges, relieve and maintain every such person, in such manner, and at such rate, as by the said justices shall be assessed."

Such was the substance of the so much vaunted act, the 43rd of Elizabeth, c. 2: a casual circumstance, mentioned in the following extract from a writer already quoted, (whose work on poor laws is of high authority,) gave the act in question a popularity it by no means merited of itself.

"In the latter end of Queen Elizabeth's reign, various expedients were proposed in both houses, for employing and providing for the poor; but among the many debates on this subject, no speaker properly noticed the principal cause of the distress of the labouring classes at the close of the sixteenth century—an uninterrupted succession of bad weather and scanty crops for several years. In 1601, however, the season was more favourable; and many short-sighted politicians thought the wisdom of the legislature had done what was solely ascribable to the benign operations of nature." (Sir Fred. Morton Eden, vol. 1, p. 135.)

The delusion was speedily dispelled. Elizabeth's successor, James, in his first speech from the throne, had to echo the nation's complaints against all that had yet been done relative to poor relief, including the 43rd of Elizabeth itself.

A statute of his reign, the 7th Jac. I, c. 4, passed in 1609, repeated the same complaints; and declared that the poor laws had "operated as a premium upon idleness."

In the 6th year of the reign of Charles the 1st, (1630,) we find a proclamation, enjoining upon the lieges the practice of fasting and abstaining—(in some such sort as in the old Catholic times)—any saving thus effected in household expenses, to be employed in "feeding the poor."

The remainder of his reign, and that of Cromwell, were too much distracted by internal troubles, and afterwards by foreign wars, to admit of much attention to the poor. But when Charles the 2nd was seated upon the throne, the tinkering upon the yet unsuccessful poor laws began again.

Statute the 13th and 14th Car. 2, chap. 12, (A.D. 1662,) was the first. It's preamble was thus worded:—

"Whereas the necessity, number, and continual increase of the poor through the whole kingdom, is very great and exceeding burthensome; and that poor people are not restrained from going from one parish to another, and therefore do endeavour to settle where there is the best stock, the largest commons to build cottages, and the most woods to burn; and when they have consumed it, then go to another parish, and at last become rogues and vagabonds, to the great discouragement of parishes to provide stock where liable to be devoured by strangers, &c., &c."

It went on to enact, as a remedy, the noted "law of settlement"—providing that "wanderers be sent back to their own parish"—no man to leave the same to seek work elsewhere, without a certificate of settlement—giving notice to the overseers of the parish to which he came, and also security not to be burthensome to that parish.

The *inevitable* tyranny of all poor law systems peeps out pretty plainly in the foregoing, restricting, as it did, the poor man in seeking the best market for his labour.

James the 2nd's reign passed over with but a few alterations in the provisions of the foregoing act for obtaining a parish settlement. The alterations, however, were of a more unfavourable character to the poor man, creating more difficulties in his way. Of the same tendency were two or three statutes of William III. The last of them, however, the 8th and 9th, William III., c. 30, had to enact some restriction on the power of sending back the poor wanderer, by giving him the right to remain in his new parish, (giving the notice and security before stated,) until he became actually chargeable therein. This small relaxation was, however, inefficacious for nearly a century after, for want of some means to compel the overseer of his own parish to give him the certificate required, and it was not till 1795, that the 35th George III., c. 101, dispensed with the latter.

The "settlement" laws, like every other branch of the poor law code, inflicted injury on society as well as on the individual, interfering with, and deranging, a free supply to the labour-market. It also has caused enormous sums to

be wasted in litigation between parishes disputing settlements of paupers, and in the conveyance and transference of the latter from one parish to another.

William III., in a speech from the throne, in 1699, bore testimony to the general failure of the poor laws up to that time. An early act of his reign, the 3rd William and Mary, cap. 11, thus noticed a particular failure:

"Whereas, many inconveniencies do daily arise by reason of the unlimited power of the overseers, who do frequently, on frivolous pretences, but chiefly for their own private ends, give relief to what persons and number they think fit;" and proposed to cure it by prohibiting relief, "except by authority, under the hand of one justice of the peace, or order of the justices in quarter sessions."

The 9th of George I., cap. 7, (1722,) shows that the foregoing act failed in its turn.

"Whereas, under colour of the 3rd and 4th William and Mary, many have applied to justice without knowledge of the parish officers; and thereby, upon untrue suggestions and frivolous pretences, have obtained relief, which hath greatly increased the parish rates."......

Then followed a provision requiring applicants to show a "reasonable ground for relief," and the latter not to be given till the overseers had been summoned to shew cause why not. This was, however, found to be inefficacious in its turn—the justice ordering relief at their own discretion, after complying with the letter of the new law.

This may be the place to introduce testimony as to the working of the poor laws in all and every shape tried—testimony from names noted in the literary annals of England.

In a pamphlet attributed to Sir Matthew Hale, and published in 1659, it is remarked of the provision of the 43rd

of Elizabeth, for "a stock of flax, wool, &c." to be laid in "to set the poor on work," that—

"The stocks of goods were not provided, because people preferred paying annually to laying down a heavy sum on a chance."

In 1669, Sir Joshua Child, in his "New Discourse on Trade," complained of "the sad and wretched condition of the poor," attributing it to the radical error in poor laws. He anticipated the objection that their defects were from "bad execution of those laws," by saying: "there never was a good law made that was not well executed—the faults of a law ensure its failure."

Clarendon, De Foe, and Locke, also added their testimony to the failure. The latter wrote thus in 1696:—

"The multiplying of the poor, and the increase of the tax for their maintenance is so general an observation and complaint, that it cannot be doubted of. It has been a growing burthen these many years. It has not proceeded from scarcity of provisions nor want of employment—since God has blessed these times with plenty, not less than the former."

In 1699, Dr. Davenant in his "Essay on Trade," recorded that the "rates were swelled to an extreme degree."

In 1735 a Committee of the House of Commons thus reported:—

"Resolved—That it is the opinion of this committee that the laws relating to the maintenance of the poor are defective; and notwithstanding they impose heavy burthens, yet the poor are ill taken care of.

"That the laws relating to settlement and concerning vagrants, are very difficult to be executed, and chargeable in their execution—vexatious to the poor, and of little advantage to the public, and ineffectual to promote the good ends for which they were intended."

Fielding, writing in the year 1753, thus speaks on the same subject:—

"That the poor are a very great burthen, and even a nuisance to this kingdom; that the laws for relieving their distress, &c., have not answered their purposes, are truths which every man will acknowledge; such have been the unanimous complaints of all writers from the days of Queen Elizabeth down; such is the sense of the legislature, and such is the universal voice of the nation!"

We need not delay with other testimonies of the continued evil working of the poor laws up to 1833-34, when we have the report of the Commission of Poor Enquiry of that date, and the parliamentary debates before us. It is sufficient to say that the tinkering went on, with how little success is, of course, evident from the sweeping changes advocated and carried into effect in the last year mentioned.

The following is the testimony to failure borne by the prime minister, Lord Althorp, in the House of Commons, April 17, 1834:—

..........." For many years complaints had been made as to the mode in which the administration of the poor laws had affected every class, more immediately connected with, or interested in the soil—the landed proprietors, the farmers, and the poor themselves; they found that the administration of the poor laws had been injurious in its operation to every one of those classes; but, most of all, it had been injurious to the labouring classes themselves.......

"He was ready to admit, that having experienced the failure of so many attempts of the legislature to remedy the defects and abuses of the poor laws, he had not been sanguine that any legislative attempt which he might make would be more successful.......

"He would now assert, and he would appeal to the facts detailed in the report of the Commissioners for the confirmation of what he stated, that the effect of the poor laws tended directly—he meant to say, that the present administration of the poor laws tended directly—to the destruction of all property in the country. It had been said, that this would lead to an agrarian law—it would lead to worse than that. An agrarian law was the division of property; but the present state of the poor laws in this country tended to the destruction of all property. He could not conceive any thing more fatal to the very class for whose benefit those laws had been enacted, than to allow them to go on in their present destructive course, without an attempt on the part of the legislature to put a check on them......

"The effect of the law of the 26th Geo. III., c. 23, was to give the magistrates the power of ordering relief to be given to the poor in their own dwellings. That had been followed up by the magistrates acting upon the same principle, which was so consistent with every good feeling of human nature, that it was impossible to blame them; and yet it was a great mistake, though originating, undoubtedly, as he had already said, in the best feelings that animate mankind. The consequence of it had been to lead from bad to worse. All feelings of independence on the part of the labourers had been almost entirely extinguished in many parts of the country, and the result had been, that instead of placing the paupers in a state of comfort, all the labouring population in many districts of the country had been reduced to a state of deplorable misery and distress."

The noble lord who made these statements was complimented from every side of the house for their accuracy and strength.

The Commissioners' Report (of 1834) should be read, in order to see how fully and sweepingly they condemned the then state of things. A few quotations from the Index to that Report will shew as much of its tenor as we have room for here.

"Poor Laws—Have dispensed with prudence and foresight—repeal the law of nature—generate idleness, improvidence, and waste—make the opposite virtues to be the source of loss to labourers."—(pp. 58, 77.)

"RATES — Rapid increase of — will swallow up rent—land thrown out of cultivation by their pressure—ratepayers are called on, when they have neither provisions nor money themselves."—(pp. 64, 66.)

"PAUPERISM—Progressively increasing."

"Overseers—Their office made an instrument of jobbing—they grant relief under intimidation, &c., favouritism," &c.—

(pp. 101-4.)

"LABOURERS—Refuse employment from individuals, depending on getting parish allowance—their discontent proportioned to the amount spent on them—degradation of the unemployed—recklessness of those receiving relief," &c., &c., &c.—(pp. 50, 71.)

"ALLOWANCE SYSTEM—Deteriorates and degrades labourers—destroys domestic affection and ties of relationship—once introduced, pauperizes whole parishes."—(pp. 68, 97.)

"OUT-DOOR RELIEF—Demanded with insolence as a right—is obtained by persons able to support themselves—degrades the receivers—though barely sufficient for support, is preferred to more pay with labour."

Such are a few of the most prominent headings in this index of poor law failures. Has the system which these commissioners recommended to replace the old, been more successful?

Before us, at this moment, is a laboured article, in the November number of Blackwood's Magazine, "on the operation of English Poor Laws," in which we find the following:

"An enquiry must be instituted—conducted in a sober spirit and without reference to theories. The question is, what remedial measures, or improvement can be adopted in the administration of the English poor laws!!!"

So, after upwards of 300 years tinkering, and after 12 years experience of the last great and sweeping change, "remedial measures and improvements" are still to seek!

The *Edinburgh Review* for October, 1846, is also before us; and the following is from an article in it, entitled, "Proposals for extending the Irish Poor Law."

"Above all, we hope England will not impose on Ireland institutions, of which the utility is questionable........ Among the English laws from which Ireland is yet in a great measure free, there is one of which both the good and the evil are enormous. Such are its powers of mischief, that it threatened, not twelve years ago, to destroy the industry of the most laborious, the wealth of the richest, and the morality of the most civilized nation in Europe. Our readers are of course aware, that we

allude to the English poor law."......

....... "The last remark we make on the proposals for extending the Irish poor law is, that so far as they are supported by a reference to the assumed success of the English poor law, they are founded on an assumption which may be premature. The evils of the unamended law were most fatal—no less than the ruin of proprietors, and the corruption of the occupiers and cultivators of the soil. The mischief went on steadily increasing; government after government tried vain expedients, or looked on in inactive despair. At length the almost despotic power given Lord Grey's government by the first reformed parliament enabled it to apply a partial remedy. The Poor Law Amendment Bill was passed, and the plague was stayed, but not eradicated."......

The article goes on to show by the increasing amount of rates, that the partial remedy is now failing in its turn.

"The following are the sums expended for the poor, from Lady Day, 1836, when the amended law may be said to have come into full operation, until the last return.

1837	£4,044,741	N.B.—These figures are exclusive
		of the expenditure out of the rates
1842	4,911,498	for law charges, removals, county
1845	5,039,703	rates, and all other purposes.

The London weekly newspaper, the *Spectator*, is at present giving a series of excellent letters of the same tenor, with regard to what is called the "amended poor law."

We thus have the leading periodicals, representing the three parties in the state, the Tory, the Whig, and the Radical, alike holding out a warning to us, not to involve ourselves further with the poor laws; and we have the chain of testimony complete down to our own time, of the failure of every system of poor laws that has been tried in that country during the whole period that they have existed.

In foreign countries, there have been partial successes of partial systems; but no general and generally successful effort upon a large scale. A certain facility and regularity of working is obtained by the pressure of the screws of despotism—by the use of all the arbitrary and vexatious powers of interference in all the details of social life, with which despotism enduces its myriad of inferior agents.

How Poor Laws have worked in Ireland. How has the limited system of poor laws actually existing in Ireland, been found to work?

In the first place, no one pretends that it has diminished the number of beggars in the smallest perceptible degree, notwithstanding the immense sums which it draws from the rate-payers.

In the second place, an enormously large disproportion of the monies so levied, is spent on the mere machinery, as it is generally styled, of the poor law, viz.: in paying the officers of the workhouses, costs of working, &c., &c. And this, when the originators of the law declared, that it would actually save money to the country, by doing away with the practice among the people of giving relief in kind, as in a small quantity of potatoes, of meal, &c., to beggars!

In connexion with the matter last mentioned, it is to be remarked, that another effect of the poor law as it exists

in Ireland, is, that the charitable man is doubly taxed—first, by the rate—which he is compelled to pay, and therefore does by no means consider as any discharge of the religious obligation to give charity; and second, by his conscientious sense of that obligation.

Until the Catholic religion is eradicated out of the hearts of the Irish people, they will continue to obey its precepts; and in especial, the truly divine precept of charity.

The last report of the Poor Law Commissioners gives the following: (Appendix, pp. 132, 136.)

	Rate Collected.	Maintenance and Clothing of Paupers.	Charges of the Establish- ment.
Half Year ended 25th March, 1845. 108 Unions	£144,216	£78,149	£37,420
Half Year ended 25th September, 1845. 112 Unions	£138,537	£81,678	£43,472
	£282,753	£159,827	£80,892

Thus the salaries, &c. of the "officers" of the establishment consumed an amount of rate equal to one-half that required for the support and clothing of the paupers! The rest of the money, viz. £42,034, was wasted in "repayments on workhouse loan, valuation, collection, and election expenses, law suits, &c. &c.

It will be seen too that the proportion consumed by the salaries, &c. increased in the second half year in a much greater proportion.

Another account, at pages 144, 145, of the same appendix to the report, gives the statement of expenditure, for the complete year 1845, (from 1st January to 31st December, inclusive,) as £316,206.

	NUMBER OF PAUPERS			
Workhouses Open.	In the Work- houses on 1st January, 1845.	Relieved during the Year.	In the Work- houses, on 1st January, 1846.	
123	39,540	74,665	42,068	

There is no statement of the charges of the establishment for the complete year; but, as, in our first table, the increase of four workhouses alone, increased those charges on the half year by £6,000, the increase of thirteen workhouses up to the 31st December, gives us a fair ground for saying, that, after due deduction for the portion of the year 1844, included in the first table, the establishment charges for the whole year 1845, must have approached the sum of, at the least, £100,000.

Reference again to the first table will shew, that the amount of money spent in actual relief, by no means increased in the same proportion, as that spent on "establishment charges"—the increase on the second half year, under the latter, having been £7,000, while under the former but £3,500; that is to say, not more than one half.

Judging then by this data, as it appears the "charges of the establishment, for the complete year 1845, were greater than those for the twelve months ending September, 1845, by £20,000, the sums expended for relief must have been greater only by £10,000.

The account then will stand thus:-

(From 1st January to 31st December, 1845, inclusive.)

Total of Expenditure.	Relief of the Poor.	Charges of Establishment.	Other Expenses, as Law Expen- ces, Valuation, Collection, and Election Do.
£316,206	£90,000	£100,000	£126,206

We have seen that the inevitable tendency of the poor laws in England has been to increase continually in cost; and our own brief experience of them in Ireland is to the same effect. And yet there are some, even in Ireland, calling out for an extension of those laws in this country!

"Out-door relief" is the grand panacea, according to these parties, for Irish distress. This relief to be partial in some cases—viz., those of the able-bodied, temporarily out of employment; and constant in others, as to the aged, weak, infirm, &c. &c.

The advocates of "out-door" relief see clearly enough, and generally will be found ready enough to join us in denouncing the workhouse system—for much such reasons as the following:—

The impossibility of a workhouse system sufficiently extensive to relieve all the paupers in Ireland.—The imprisonment which that system involves necessarily and indispensably.—The unnatural separation of husband and wife, and of families.—The temptations to proselytism, and occasions for religious bickerings.—The enormous expense of the "staff" of the workhouse.—The jumbling together of persons of good life and character with the offscourings of the streets, and the consequent danger of corruption to the former—a danger fearful in

the cases of females and children.—The bringing up of multitudes of young people in seclusion from the community at large, and in utter disconnection with it.

But many who recognize and acknowledge these evil incidents of the workhouse system, are not by any means so ready to admit the equally potent and undeniable evils of a system of "out-door" relief.

Among these evils the first is "fraud," on the part of the object of out-door relief. Cases have been innumerable in England where applicants received relief from three or four different parishes, under pretence of belonging to each; and where they contrived to work at their trades and make profit at the very time they were receiving parish pay, on account of alleged inability to do any thing towards their own support.

That the extremest vigilance cannot prevent frauds, is established by the evidence of Mr. Tidd Pratt, the barrister appointed to revise and control the rules of benefit societies, in which the immediate interest of the contributors requires and ensures such vigilance, in a degree that mere officials employed by poor law authorities for the purpose, cannot be expected in any case to excel, and only in rare and particular cases (if ever) to equal.

(From the Poor Law Commissioners' Report, 1834, Chap. "Remedial Measures.")

"On this point (out-door relief) as on many others, the independent labourers may be our best teachers. In the administration of the funds of their friendly societies, they have long acted on the principle of rendering the condition of a person receiving their relief, less eligible than that of an independent labourer. They also enforce most unrelentingly the principle, that under no circumstances shall any member of their societies receive relief while earning any thing for himself. Mr. Tidd Pratt was asked whether, in the rules for the management of friendly societies, framed by the labouring classes themselves, he had ever found any for the allowance of partial relief; such as in aid of wages, or relief on account of the number of a family?"—" No, never."

"Then, do the labouring classes themselves, in the rules submitted to you, reject all partial relief, or relief on any other

ground than the utter inability to work?-Invariably.

"By what penalties do they endeavour to secure themselves from fraud, on the part of persons continuing on the sick list after they have become able to work?—In all cases by utter expulsion, and enforcement of the repayment of the money from the period at which it was proved the party was able to work. a whole class of cases, which would ruin them. The other day the steward of a friendly society came to consult me as to the reinstatement of a member, who had been expelled for having neglected to pay his quarter's subscription on the regular quarter night, half an hour after the books were closed. party had been a member thirty-two years, and during that time had received little or no relief. The case struck me as extremely hard; and I endeavoured to prevail on the steward to reinstate the member; but the steward stated to me so many facts, shewing that if they yielded to this one, it would determine a whole class of cases, and let in so much abuse, that I was ultimately forced to agree in the necessity of the decision."

LANCE EXERCISED AGAINST THEM."

"What description of vigilance is that?—It is provided by the rules, that a domiciliary visit shall be paid by the stewards or by a member, generally every day; these visits to be paid at uncertain times, that they may increase the chances of detection. It is also provided that a sick member shall not leave his house before or after such an hour, and that on his leaving home at other times he shall leave word in writing where he has gone, by what line of road he has gone and intends to return, in order that the stewards or members may track him. In some instances the members follow up these precautions by requiring a member, when he 'declares off' the box, to swear that he was unable to work during the whole time that he has been receiving relief."

"Are these precautions effectual?—No; NOTWITHSTAND-ING THE UTMOST VIGILANCE, SERIOUS FRAUDS ARE COMMITTED, especially by the members of those trades who can work at piece-work within doors; such, for example, as tailors, shoemakers, watchmakers, and weavers. An operative of these trades keeps his door shut, and works, and when the visitor comes, the work is put under the bed-clothes, or otherwise concealed, and he is found in bed apparently sick."......

We should stretch this article (already too long) beyond all reasonable limits, were we to give even a small portion of the other convincing evidences that are on record as to the impossibility of sufficient vigilance to prevent frauds. One paragraph more, however, may be quoted from the report of 1834:—

..... "That where the administration of relief is brought nearer to the door of the pauper, little advantage arises from increased knowledge on the part of the distributors, and great evil from their increased liability to every sort of pernicious influence. It brings tradesmen within the influence of their customers, small farmers within that of their relations and connexions, and not unfrequently of those who have been their fellow workmen, and exposes the wealthier classes to solicitations from their own dependants for extra allowances, which might be meritoriously and usefully given as private charity, but are abuses when forced from the public. Under such circumstances, to continue out-door relief is to continue a relief which will generally be given ignorantly or corruptly, frequently procured by fraud, and in a large and rapidly increasing proportion of cases extorted by intimidation—an intimidation which is not more powerful as a source of profusion than as an obstacle to improvement."

But it will be said, that notwithstanding the foregoing and other denunciations, the Poor Law Commissioners have found it impossible to do away with the practice of out-door relief. To this the answer is short and direct. They have so been unable certainly; but it is because the English people had become too accustomed to the practice

to admit of its being abrogated, and hence mainly the rapid increase of the sum levied as rates after the first year of the new law, when the attempt was made to check, with a view finally to do away with, out-door relief. In fact, this is but an additional reason for us not to allow ourselves to be involved in the same manner.

The following remarks are from the Poor Law Commission Report for 1839:—

"As soon as a man gets out-door relief, his maximum of earnings is fixed. He knows that if they exceed the guardians' estimate, his relief will be proportionably diminished, and his increased labour only be a saving to the rate-payers..........

The desirable object of implanting in the rising generation an unwillingness to receive legal relief, is frustrated by out-door relief being given to families; the habit of dependency being taught and encouraged in the children......

whole family in the workhouse, than to give a small out-door relief. But on the other hand, for one family that would avail itself of the workhouse, hundreds seek the other species of relief, and so outbalance far the expenditure in the former

case."

We have quoted English testimonies enough. We shall now give one testimony of great importance from America. It is from the report of a committee in Philadelphia, in 1825:—

"A compulsory provision for the poor increases pauperism, entails an oppressive burthen on a country, and promotes idleness and licentiousness. Poor laws have done away with private charity, are onerous to the community, and every way injurious to the morals and independence of that class for whose benefit they were intended. The only effectual relief from their evils is, the total repeal of those laws. In this country, where all classes have equal rights, and population is far from pressing on the means of subsistence, it is, indeed, alarming to find pauperism progressing with such rapidity. We are fast treading in the footsteps of England."

We, in Ireland, have been compelled to tread for some way in those footsteps, by the English planned and English imposed poor law of 1838; and it urgently behoves us to take warning in time, ere we be hurried farther along a track so marked with ruinous waste and aggravated and ever increasing wretchedness.

THE ACT

FOR THE

UNION OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

(Royal assent given on Friday, August, 1800.)

Whereas in pursuance of His Majesty's most gracious recom- The Parliamendation to the two Houses of Parliament in Great Britain ments of Great Briand Ireland respectively, to consider of such measures as might tain and Irebest tend to strengthen and consolidate the connexion between resolved to the two kingdoms, the two Houses of the Parliament of Great eoneur in measures for Britain, and the two Houses of the Parliament of Ireland, have uniting the severally agreed and resolved, that in order to promote and two kingsecure the essential interests of Great Britain and Ireland, and to consolidate the strength, power, and resources of the British empire, it will be advisable to concur in such measures as may best tend to unite the two kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland into one kingdom, in such manner, and on such terms and conditions, as may be established by the acts of the respective Parliaments of Great Britain and Ireland.

And whereas, in furtherance of the said resolution, both Said parlia-Houses of the said two Parliaments respectively, have likewise agreed upon agreed upon certain articles for affectuating and establishing following the said purposes in the tenor following:-

ARTICLE FIRST.

That it be the first article of the Union of the kingdoms of Great Britain and Ire-Great Britain and Ireland, that the said kingdoms of Great land to be Britain and Ireland shall, upon the first day of January, which united for ever from 1st shall be in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred Jan. 1801.

and one, and for ever, be united into one kingdom, by the name of "The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland;" and that the royal style and titles appertaining to the imperial crown of the said united kingdom and its dependencies, and also the ensigns, armorial flags, and banners thereof, shall be such as His Majesty, by his royal proclamation under the great seal of the united kingdom, shall be pleased to appoint.

ARTICLE SECOND.

Succession to the Crown to continue as at present.

That it be the second article of Union, that the succession to the imperial crown of the said united kingdom, and of the dominions thereunto belonging, shall continue limited and settled in the same manner as the succession to the imperial crown of the said kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland now stands limited and settled, according to the existing laws and to the terms of Union between England and Scotland.

ARTICLE THIRD.

One parliament. That it be the third article of Union, that the said united kingdom be represented in one and the same Parliament, to be styled "The Parliament of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland."

ARTICLE FOURTH.

4 Spiritual and 28 Temporal Lords to sit for Ireland and 100 Commoners.

That it it be the fourth article of Union, that four lords spiritual of Ireland, by rotation of sessions, and twenty-eight lords temporal of Ireland, elected for life by the peers of Ireland, shall be the number to sit and vote on the part of Ireland in the House of Lords of the parliament of the United kingdom; and one hundred commoners, (two for each county of Ireland, two for the city of Dublin, two for the city of Cork, one for the University of Trinity College, and one for each of the thirty-one most considerable cities, towns, and boroughs,) be the number to sit and vote on the part of Ireland in the House of Commons of the parliament of the united kingdom.

The representation act shall be considered as part of the Union.

That such act as shall be passed in the parliament of Ireland previous to the Union, "to regulate the mode by which the lords spiritual and temporal, and the commons, to serve in the parliament of the united kingdom on the part of Ireland, shall be summoned and returned to the said parliament," shall be considered as forming part of the treaty of Union, and

shall be incorporated in the acts of the respective parliaments by which the said Union shall be ratified and established.

That all questions touching the rotation or election of lords Rotation spiritual or temporal of Ireland to sit in the parliament of the of Lords united kingdom, shall be decided by the House of Lords there-spiritual and of; and whenever by reason of an equality of votes in the election of any such lords temporal, a complete election shall not be made according to the true intent of this article, the names of those peers for whom such equality of votes shall be so given, shall be written on pieces of paper of a similar form, and shall be put into a glass by the clerk of the parliaments at the table of the House of Lords whilst the House is sitting, and the peer or peers whose name or names shall be first drawn out by the clerk of the parliaments shall be deemed the peer or peers elected, as the case may be.

That any person holding any peerage of Ireland now sub- Irish peers sisting, or hereafter to be created, shall not thereby be dis- who are not elected to qualified from being elected to serve, if he shall so think fit, serve as or from serving or continuing to serve, if he shall so think fit, peers, may for any county, city, or borough of Great Britain, in the House British comof Commons of the united kingdom, unless he shall have been during previously elected as above to sit in the House of Lords of the which time united kingdom; but that so long as such peer of Ireland shall be elected to so continue to be a member of the House of Commons, he peers. shall not be entitled to the privilege of peerage, nor be capable of being elected to serve as a peer on the part of Ireland, or of voting at any such election, and that he shall be liable to be sued, indicted, proceeded against, and tried as a commoner, for any offence with which he may be charged.

That it shall be lawful for his Majesty, his heirs and succes- Creation of sors, to create peers of that part of the united kingdom called Irish peers. Ireland, and to make promotions in the peerage thereof after the Union, provided that no new ereation of any such peers shall take place after the Union, until three of the peerages of Ireland which shall have been existing at the time of the Union shall have become extinct, and upon such extinction of three peerages, that it shall be lawful for his Majesty, his heirs and successors, to create one peer of that part of the united kingdom called Ireland, and in like manner so often as three peerages of that part of the united kingdom called Ireland shall become extinct, it shall be lawful for his Majesty, his heirs and successors, to create one other peer of the said part of the united kingdom; and if it shall happen that the peers of that

part of the united kingdom called Ireland shall, by extinction of peerages, or otherwise, be reduced to the number of one hundred, exclusive of all such peers of that part of the united kingdom called Ireland as shall hold any peerage of Great Britain subsisting at the time of the Union, or of the united kingdom created since the Union, by which such peers shall be entitled to an hereditary seat in the House of Lords of the united kingdom, then and in that case it shall and may be lawful for his Majesty, his heirs and successors, to create one peer of that part of the united kingdom called Ireland, as often as any one of such one hundred peerages shall fall by extinction, or as often as any one peer of that part of the united kingdom called Ireland shall become entitled by descent or creation to an hereditary seat in the House of Lords of the united kingdom; it being the true intent and meaning of this article, that at all times after the Union it shall and may be lawful for his Majesty, his heirs and successors, to keep up the peerage of that part of the united kingdom called Ireland to the number of one hundred, over and above the number of such of the said peers as shall be entitled by descent or creation to an hereditary seat in the House of Lords of the united kingdom.

In what cases peerdeemed extinct.

That if any peerage shall at any time be in abeyance, such ges may be peerage shall be deemed and taken as an existing peerage, and no peerage shall be deemed extinct unless on default of claimants to the inheritance of such peerage for the space of one year from the death of the person who shall have been last possessed thereof, and if no claim shall be made to the inheritance of such pecrage in such form and manner as may from time to time be prescribed by the House of Lords of the united kingdom, before the expiration of the said period of a year, then and in that case such peerage shall be deemed extinct; provided that nothing herein shall exclude any person from afterwards putting in a claim to the peerage so deemed extinct, and if such claim shall be allowed as valid by the judgment of the House of Lords of the united kingdom reported to his Majesty, such peerage shall be considered as revived; and in case any new creation of a peerage of that part of the united kingdom called Ireland, shall have taken place in the interval, in consequence of the supposed extinction of such peerage, then no new right of creation shall accrue to his Majesty, his heirs or successors, in consequence of the next extinction which shall take place of any peerage of that part of the united kingdom called Ireland.

That all questions touching the election of members to sit on How the part of Ireland in the House of Commons of the United touching Kingdom, shall be heard and decided in the same manner as election questions touching such elections in Great Britain now are, or Commoners at any time hereafter shall by law be heard and decided, sub-cided. ject, nevertheless, to such particular regulations in respect of Ireland as from local circumstances the parliament of the united kingdom may for time to time deem expedient.

That the qualifications in respect of property of the members Qualifications as to elected on the part of Ireland to sit in the House of Commons property of the united kingdom, shall be respectively the same as are of lirish commoners now provided by law in the cases of elections for counties and shall be cities and boroughs respectively in that part of Great Britain same as in England. called England, unless any other provision shall hereafter be made in that respect by act of parliament of the united king-

That when his Majesty, his heirs or successors, shall declare How the his, her, or their pleasure, for holding the first or any subse-of the united quent parliament of the united kingdom, a proclamation shall kingdom issue under the great seal of the united kingdom, to cause the stituted. lords spiritual and temporal, and commons who are to serve in the parliament thereof on the part of Ireland, to be returned in such manner as by any act of this present session of the par-liament of Ireland shall be provided; and that the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons of Great Britain shall, together with the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons so returned as aforesaid on the part of Ireland, constitute the two houses of the parliament of the united kingdom.

That if his Majesty, on or before the first day of January, In what one thousand eight hundred and one, on which day the Union present is to take place, shall declare under the great seal of Great numbers of both Houses Britain, that it is expedient that the lords and commons of the in G. Britain present parliament of Great Britain should be the members of shall be members of the respective houses of the first parliament of the united king-first parliament of the dom on the part of Great Britain, then the said Lords and united king-dom.

Commons of the present parliament of Great Britain shall aecordingly be the members of the respective houses of the first parliament of the united kingdom on the part of Great Britain, and they, together with the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons so summoned and returned as above, on the part of Ireland, shall be the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons, of the first parliament of the united kingdom, and such first parliament may (in that case), if not sooner dissolved,

than 20 Irish Commoners holding places shall sit in the united parliament: and if more be returned the seats of the last shall be vacated.

continue to sit so long as the present parliament of Great Britain may now by law continue to sit, if not sooner dissolved: provided always, that until an act shall have passed in the parliament of the united kingdom, providing in what cases persons holding offices or places of profit under the crown in Ireland, shall be incapable of being members of the House of Commons of the parliament of the united kingdom, no greater number of members than twenty holding such offices or places as aforesaid, shall be capable of sitting in the said House of Commons of the parliament of the united kingdom; and if such a number of members shall be returned to serve in the said house, as to make the whole number of members of the said house holding such offices or places as aforesaid more than twenty, then, and in such case, the seats or places of such members as shall have last accepted such offices or places shall be vacated, at the option of such members, so as to reduce the number of members holding such offices or places to the number twenty; and no person holding any such office or place shall be capable of being elected, or of sitting in the said house, while there are twenty persons holding such offices or places sitting in the said house; and that every one of the Lords of parliament of the united kingdom, and every member of the House of Commons of the united kingdom, in the first and all succeeding parliaments, shall, until the parliament of the united kingdom shall otherwise provide, take the oaths, and make and subscribe the declaration, and take and subscribe the oath now by law enjoined to be taken, made, and subscribed by the lords and commons of the parliament of Great Britain.

Oaths to be taken as now prescribed by parliament of Great Britain.

Privileges, rights, rank, and precedency of Lords spiritual and

That the lords of parliament on the part of Ireland, in the House of Lords of the united kingdom, shall at all times have the same privileges of parliament which shall belong to the lords of parliament on the part of Great Britain; and the lords temporal in the imperial spiritual and temporal respectively on the part of Ireland, shall parliament. at all times have the same rights in respect of their sitting and voting upon the trial of peers, as the lords spiritual and temporal respectively on the part of Great Britain; and that all lords spiritual of Ireland shall have rank and precedency next and immediately after the lords spiritual of the same rank and degree of Great Gritain, and shall enjoy all privileges as fully as the lords spiritual of Great Britain do now, or may hereafter enjoy the same, the right and privilege of sitting in the House of Lords, and the privileges depending thereon, and particularly the right of sitting on the trial of

peers, excepted; and that the persons holding any temporal pecrages of Ireland existing at the time of the Union, shall, from and after the Union, have rank and precedency next and immediately after all the persons holding peerages of the like orders and degrees in Great Britain, subsisting at the time of the Union; and that all peerages of Ireland, created after the Union, shall have rank and precedency with the peerages of the united kingdom so created, according to the dates of their creations; and that all peerages, both of Great Britain and Ireland, now subsisting, or hereafter to be created, shall, in all other respects, from the date of the Union, be considered as peerages of the united kingdom, and that the peers of Ireland shall, as peers of the united kingdom, be sued and tried as peers, except as aforesaid, and shall enjoy all privileges of peers as fully as the the peers of Great Britain; the right and privilege of sitting in the House of Lords, and the privileges depending thereon, and the right of sitting on the trial of peers, only excepted.

ARTICLE FIFTH.

That it be the fifth article of Union, that the churches of England and Ireland, as now by law established, be united into and Ireland one Protestant episcopal church, to be called "The united united into Church of England and Ireland;" and that the doctrine, worship, discipline, and government of the said united church, shall be, and shall remain in full force for ever, as the same are now by law established for the church of England; and that the continuance and preservation of the said united church, as the established church of England and Ireland, shall be deemed and taken to be an essential and fundamental part of the Union; and that in like manner the doctrine, worship, discipline, and Church of government of the church of Scotland shall remain and be preserved as the same are now established by law, and by the acts at present established. for the Union of the two kingdoms of England and Scotland.

ARTICLE SIXTH.

That it be the sixth article of Union, that his Majesty's Subjects of subjects of Great Britain and Ireland shall, from and after the tain and Irefirst day of January, one thousand eight hundred and one, be on same entitled to the same privileges, and be on the same footing as footing from 1st January, to encouragements and bounties on the like articles being the 1su annuary, to encouragements and bounties on the like articles being the 1801.

growth, produce, or manufacture of either country respectively, and generally in respect of trade and navigation in all ports and places in the united kingdom and its dependencies; and that in all treaties made by his Majesty, his heirs and successors, with any foreign power, his Majesty's subjects of Ireland shall have the same privileges, and be on the same footing as his Majesty's subjects of Great Britain.

No duty or bounty on exportation of procountry to the other.

That from the first day of January, one thousand eight hundred and one, all prohibitions and bounties on the export of articles the growth, produce, or manufacture of either country to the other shall cease and determine, and that the said articles shall thenceforth be exported from one country to the other

without duty or bounty on such export.

All articles the produce of either ported free from dnty, in schedule

That all articles the growth, produce, or manufacture of either country, (not herein-after enumerated as subject to country shall be im- specific duties,) shall from thenceforth be imported into each country from the other, free from duty, other than such counexcept those tervailing duties on the several articles enumerated in the schedule No. I, A and B, hereunto annexed, as are therein specified, or such other countervailing duties as shall hereafter be imposed by the parliament of the united kingdom, in the manner herein-after provided; and that for the period of twenty years from the Union, the articles enumerated in the schedule No. II, hereunto annexed, shall be subject, on importation into each country from the other, to the duties specified in the said schedule No. II. And the woollen manufactures, known by the names of old and new drapery, shall pay on importation into each country from the other, the duties now payable on importation into Ireland.

Duties in schedule 2, to be paid for 20 years.

Duty on woollen manufacture.

Duties on

Salt and hops, on importation into Ireland from Great Britain, duties not exceeding those which are now paid on importation into Ireland; and coals on importation into Ireland from Great Britain, shall be subject to burthens not exceeding those to which they are now subject.

salt, hops, and coals into Ireland. as at present.

Regulation respecting muslins;

That calicoes and muslins shall, on their importation into respecting calicoes and either country from the other, be subject and liable to the duties now payable on the same, on the importation thereof from Great Britain into Ireland, until the fifth day of January, one thousand eight hundred and eight; and from and after the said day the said duties shall be annually reduced by equal proportions as near as may be in each year, so as that the said duties shall stand at ten per centum, from and after the fifth day of January, one thousand eight hundred and sixteen, until the fifth day of

January, one thousand eight hundred and twenty-one; and that also respectcotton yarn and cotton twist shall, on their importation into yarn and either country from the other, be subject and liable to the duties cotton twist. now payable upon the same, on the importation thereof from Great Britain into Ireland, until the fifth day of January, one thousand eight hundred and eight; and from and after the said day, the said duties shall be annually reduced by equal proportions as near as may be in each year, so as that all duties shall cease on the said articles from and after the fifth day of January. one thousand eight hundred and sixteen.

That any articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of Produce of either country, which are or may be subject to internal duty, or either country, subject to duty on the materials of which they are composed, may be to internal duty, shall, made subject, on their importation into each country respect- on importaively from the other, to such countervailing duty as shall ap-tion into each counpear to be just and reasonable in respect of such internal duty or try, be sub-duties on the materials, and that for the said purposes the arti-tervailing cles specified in the said schedule, No. 1, A and B, shall be sub- duty, &c., vide Scheject to the duties set forth therein, liable to be taken off, dimin-dule 1, A ished, or increased in the manner herein specified, and that and B. upon the export of the said articles from each country to the other respectively, a draw-back shall be given equal in amount to the countervailing duty payable on such articles on the import thereof into the same country from the other, and that in like manner in future, it shall be competent to the united parliament to impose any new or additional countervailing duties, or to take off or diminish such existing countervailing duties, as may appear on like principles to be just and reasonable, in respect of any future or additional internal duty on any article of the growth, produce, or manufacture of either country, or of any new or additional duty on any materials of which such article may be composed, or of any abatement of duty on the same, and that when any such new or additional countervailing duty shall be so imposed, on the import of any article into either country from the other, a drawback equal in amount to such countervailing duty, shall be given in like manner on the export of every such article respectively, from the same country to the other.

That all articles the growth, produce, or manufacture of Same either country, when exported through the other, shall, in all produce of cases, be exported subject to the same charges as if they had either country tryexported been exported directly from the country of which they were the through the

growth, produce, or manufacture.

Regulations respecting duty on colonial or foreign produce.

Not to extend to corn, &c. That all duty charged on the import of foreign or colonial goods, into either country, shall, on their export to the other, be either drawn back, or the amount (if any be retained) shall be placed to the credit of the country to which they shall be so exported, so long as the expenditure of the united kingdom shall be defrayed by proportional contributions; provided always, that nothing herein shall extend to take away any duty, bounty, or prohibition, which exists with respect to corn, meal, malt, flour or biscuit, but that all duties, bounties, or prohibitions on the said articles may be regulated, varied, or repealed, from time to time, as the united parliament shall deem expedient.

SCHEDULE, NO. II.

Of the articles charged with the duties specified upon importation into Great Britain and Ireland respectively, according to the sixth article of the Union.

ApparelBrass, wrought Cabinet ware Coaches and other carriages Copper, wrought Cottons, other than calicoes and muslins Glass Haberdashery Hats Tin-plates, wrought iron, and hardware Gold and silver lace, gold and silver thread, bullion for lace, pearl and spangles Millinery Paper, stained Pottery Saddlery, and other manufactured leather Silk manufacture Stockings

ARTICLE SEVENTH.

Charges for debts incurred by arising from the payment of the interest and the sinking fund either king-for the reduction of the principal of the debt incurred in either Union, shall kingdom before the Union, shall continue to be separately de-

Ten per cent. on the true value.

frayed by Great Britain and Ireland respectively, except as be separately defrayed.

hereinafter provided.

That for the space of twenty years after the Union shall For 20 years take place, the contribution of Great Britain and Ireland res-bution pectively, towards the expenditure of the united kingdom in expenditure each year, shall be defrayed in the proportion of fifteen parts of Great Britain and two parts for Ireland; that at the ex-Ireland, piration of the said twenty years, the future expenditure of the shall be as 15 to 2, after united kingdom, other than the interest and charges of the which the debt to which either country shall be separately liable, shall be proportions may be aldefrayed in such proportion as the parliament of the united tered as herein. kingdom shall deem just and reasonable, upon a comparison of the real value of the exports and imports of the respective countries, upon an average of the three years next preceding the period of revision, or on a comparison of the value of the quantities of the following articles consumed within the respective countries on a similar average, viz. beer, spirits, sugar, wine, tea, tobacco, and malt, or according to the aggregate proportion resulting from both these considerations combined, or on a comparison of the amount of income in each country, estimated from the produce for the same period of a general tax, if such shall have been imposed on the same descriptions of income in both countries; and that the parliament of the united kingdom shall afterwards proceed in like manner to revise and fix the said proportions according to the same rules, or any of them, at periods not more distant than twenty years, nor less than seven years from each other, unless previous to any such period the parliament of the united kingdom shall have declared, as herein-after provided, that the expenditure of the united kingdom shall be defrayed indiscriminately by equal taxes imposed on the like articles in both countries.

That for the defraying the said expenditure, according to the Revenues of Ireland rules above laid down, the revenues of Ireland shall hereafter shall be a constitute a consolidated fund, which shall be charged in the fund, application instance with the interest of the debt of Ireland, and with cable to interest, sinking fund applicable to the reduction of the said debt, ing fund, and the recognized as the result of the said debt, ing fund, and the recognized as the result of the said debt, ing fund, and the result of the said debt, ing fund, and the result of the said debt, ing fund, and the result of the said debt, ing fund, and the result of the said debt, ing fund, and the result of the said debt, ing fund, and the result of the said debt, ing fund, and the result of the said debt, ing fund, and the result of the said debt, ing fund, and the result of the said debt, ing fund, and the result of the said debt, ing fund, and the said debt, in the said debt, in the said debt, in the said debt, in t and the remainder shall be applied towards defraying the pro- and expenditure of portion of the expenditure of the united kingdom to which Ire-united kingdom.

land may be liable in each year.

That the proportion of contribution to which Great Britain in Ireland and Ireland will be liable, shall be raised by such taxes in each shall here-after be country respectively, as the parliament of the united kingdom more highly shall, from time to time, deem fit; provided always, that in taxed than in England.

regulating the taxes in each country by which their respective proportions shall be levied, no article in Ireland shall be made liable to any new or additional duty by which the whole amount of duty payable thereon would exceed the amount which will be thereafter payable in England on the like article.

Application of surplus of of Ireland.

That if, at the end of any year, any surplus shall accrue the revenues from the revenues of Ireland, after defraying the interest, sinking fund, and proportional contribution, and separate charges to which the said country shall then be liable, taxes shall be taken off to the amount of such surplus, or the surplus shall be applied by the parliament of the united kingdom to local purposes in Ireland, or to make good any deficiency which may arise in the revenues of Ireland in time of peace, or be invested by the commissioners of the national debt of Ireland in the funds, to accumulate for the benefit of Ireland at compound interest, in case of the contribution of Ireland in time of war; provided that the surplus so to accumulate shall, at no future period, be suffered to exceed the sum of five millions.

That all monies to be raised after the Union by loan, in

peace or war, for the service of the united kingdom, by the

All monies raised after the Union shall be a joint debt.

parliament thereof, shall be considered to be a joint debt, and the charges thereof, shall be borne by the respective countries in the proportion of their respective contributions; provided that if at any time in raising their respective contributions hereby fixed for each country, the parliament of the united kingdom shall judge it fit to raise a greater proportion of such respective contributions in one country within the year than in the other, greater pro- or to set apart a greater proportion of sinking fund for the liquidation of the whole, or any part of the loan raised on account of the one country than of that raised on account of the other country, then such part of the said loan for the liquidation of which different provisions shall have been made for the respective countries, shall be kept distinct, and shall be borne by each separately, and only that part of the said loan be deemed joint and common, for the reduction of which the respective countries shall have made provision in the proportion of their respective contributions.

What shall be done when a shall be raised or set apart in one country than in the other.

> That if at any future day, the separate debt of each country respectively shall have been liquidated, or if the values of their respective debts (estimated according to the amount of the interest and annuities attending the same, and of the sinking fund applicable to the reduction thereof, and to the period within which the whole capital of such debt shall appear to be

In what eases the imperial parliament may declare that future expenses shall be defrayed by

redeemable by such sinking fund) shall be to each other in the equal taxes same proportion with the respective contributions of each articles, country respectively, or if the amount by which the value of subject to particuthe larger of such debts shall vary from such proportion shall lar exempnot exceed one hundredth part of the said value, and if it shall Ircland and appear to the parliament of the united kingdom that the Scotland. respective circumstances of the two countries will thenceforth admit of their contributing indiscriminately, by equal taxes imposed on the same articles in each, to the future expenditure of the united kingdom, it shall be competent to the parliament of the united kingdom to declare that all future expense thenceforth to be incurred, together with the interest and charges of all joint debts contracted previous to such declaration, shall be so defrayed indiscriminately, by equal taxes imposed on the same articles in each country, and thenceforth, from time to time, as circumstances may require, to impose and apply such taxes accordingly, subject only to such particular exemptions or abatements in Ireland, and in that part of Great Britain called Scotland, as circumstances may appear from time to time to demand.

That from the period of such declaration, it shall no longer After such be necessary to regulate the contribution of the two countries declaration, no specific towards the future expenditure of the united kingdom, accord- proportion of contribuing to any specific proportion, or according to any of the rules tion, but sehereinbefore prescribed; provided nevertheless, that the interest est and or charges which may remain on account of any part of the charges reseparate debt with which either country shall be chargeable, and shall be dewhich shall not be liquidated or consolidated proportionably as frayed separately. above, shall, until extinguished, continue to be defrayed by separate taxes in each country.

That a sum not less than the sum which has been granted by for agriculthe parliament of Ireland, on the average of six years immeture, manudiately preceding the first day of January, in the year one factures, and pious thousand eight hundred, in premiums for the internal encour-purposes, agement of agriculture or manufactures, or for the maintainshall be continued 20 ing institutions for pious and charitable purposes, shall be ap-years in Ireplied for the period of twenty years after the Union, to such local purposes in Ireland, in such manner as the parliament of the united kingdom shall direct.

That from and after the first day of January, one thousand Application eight hundred and one, all public revenue arising to the united of revenue kingdom from the territorial dependencies thereof, and applied territorial dependencies the general expenditure of the united kingdom, shall be so cies.

applied in the proportions of the respective contributions of the two countries.

ARTICLE EIGHTH.

All civil and ecclesiasticourts shall remain as now established, subject to future alterations:

Writs of error and appeals decided by lords of united kingdom;

Court of admiralty in Ireland. with appeal to chancery in Ireland; all contrary laws repealed.

Said articles were approved of by his majesty;

Said articles are hereby declared to be the articles of the Union, and in force for ever from 1st Jan. 1801.

That it be the eighth article of Union, that all laws in force cal laws and at the time of the Union, and all the courts of civil and ecclesiastical jurisdiction, within the respective kingdoms, shall remain as now by law established within the same, subject only to such alterations and regulations, from time to time, as circumstances may appear to the parliament of the united kingdom to require; provided that all writs of error and appeals depending at the time of the Union, or hereafter to be brought, and which might now be finally decided by the House of Lords of either kingdom, shall, from and after the Union, be finally decided by the House of Lords of the united kingdom; and provided, that from and after the Union there shall remain in Ireland an instance Court of Admiralty, for the determination of causes, civil and maritime only; and that the appeal from sentences of the said court shall be to his Majesty's delegates in his Court of Chancery, in that part of the united kingdom called Ireland; and that all laws at present in force in either kingdom, which shall be contrary to any of the provisions which may be enacted by any act for carrying these articles into effect, be from and after the Union repealed. And whereas the said articles having, by address of the

respective houses of parliament in Great Britain and Ireland, been humbly laid before his Majesty, his Majesty has been graciously pleased to approve the same, and to recommend it to his two houses of parliament in Great Britain and Ireland, to consider of such measures as may be necessary for giving effect to the said articles; in order therefore to give full effect and validity to the same, be it enacted by the King's most excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons in this present parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, That the said foregoing recited articles, each and every one of them, according to the true intent and tenor thereof, be ratified, confirmed, and approved, and be, and they are hereby declared to be, the articles of the Union of Great Britain and Ireland, and the same shall be in force and have effect for ever, from the first day of January, which shall be in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and one; provided that before that

period an act shall have been passed by the parliament of Great Britain, for carrying into effect, in the like manner, the said

foregoing recited articles.

II. And whereas a bill, entitled, an act to regulate the mode Recital of the repreby which the lords spiritual and temporal, and the com-sentation mons to serve in the parliament of the united kingdom on the act passed part of Ireland, shall be summoned and returned to the said parliament, has passed the two houses of the parliament of this kingdom, the tenor whereof is as follows: -"An Act to regulate the mode by which the lords spiritual and temporal, and the commons to serve in the parliament of the united kingdom on the part of Ireland, shall be summoned and returned to the said parliament." Whereas it is agreed by the fourth article By 4th artiof Union, that four lords spiritual of Ireland, by rotation of cle of the sessions, and twenty-eight lords temporal of Ireland, elected lords spirifor life by the peers of Ireland, shall be the number to sit and 28 temporal, vote on the part of Ireland, in the House of Lords of the and 100 parliament of the united kingdom, and one hundred commoners, are to sit (two for each county of Ireland, two for the city of Dublin, two and vote on the part of for the city of Cork, one for the college of the Holy Trinity Ireland in of Dublin, and one for each of the thirty-one most considerable cities, towns, and boroughs,) be the number to sit and vote on ment. the part of Ireland in the House of Commons of the parliament of the united kingdom; be it enacted by the King's most excellent majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons, in this present parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, that the said four lords spiritual shall be taken from among the lords spiritual of Ireland in the manner following, that is to say, that one of the four archbishops of Ireland, and three of the How the 4 eighteen bishops of Ireland, shall sit in the House of Lords of tual shall the united parliament in each session thereof; that said right of be returned for each sitting being regulated as between the said archbishops respecsession, in tively by a rotation among the archiepiscopal sees from session rotation. to session, and in like manner that of the bishops by a like rotation among the episcopal sees; that the primate of all Ireland for the time being shall sit in the first session of the parliament of the united kingdom, the archbishop of Dublin for the time being in the second, the archbishop of Cashel for the time being in the third, the archbishop of Tuam for the time being in the fourth, and so by rotation of sessions for ever; such rotation to proceed regularly and without interruption from session to session, notwithstanding any dissolution or expiration of parliament; that three suffragan bishops shall in

like manner sit according to rotation of their sees, from session to session, in the following order: the lord bishop of Meath, the lord bishop of Kildare, the lord bishop of Derry, in the first session of the parliament of the united kingdom; the lord bishop of Raphoe, the lord bishop of Limerick, Ardfert, and

Aghadoe, the lord bishop of Dromore, in the second session of the parliament of the united kingdom; the lord bishop of Elphin, the lord bishop of Down and Connor, the lord bishop of Waterford and Lismore, in the third session of the parliament of the united kingdom; the lord bishop of Leighlin and Ferns, the lord bishop of Cloyne, the lord bishop of Cork and Ross, in the fourth session of the parliament of the united kingdom; the lord bishop of Killaloe and Kilfenora, the lord bishop of Kilmore, the lord bishop of Clogher, in the fifth session of the parliament of the united kingdom; the lord bishop of Ossory, the lord bishop of Killala and Achonry, the lord bishop of Clonfert and Kilmacduagh, in the sixth session of the parliament of the united kingdom; the said rotation to be nevertheless subject to such variation therefrom, from time to time, as is herein The 28 lords after provided; that the said twenty-eight lords temporal shall be chosen by all the temporal peers of Ireland, in the manner hereinafter provided; that each of the said lords temporal so chosen shall be entitled to sit in the House of Lords of the parliament of the united kingdom during his life, and in case of his death, or forfeiture of any of the said lords temothers shall poral, the temporal peers of Ireland shall, in the manner herein after provided, choose another peer out of their own number to supply the place so vacant.

sen for life in manner herein directed; and in cases of death or forfeiture. be chosen.

64 commonboroughs.

III. And be it enacted, that of the one hundred commoners ers for coun- to sit on the part of Ireland in the united parliament, sixty-four for cities and shall be chosen for the counties, and thirty-six for the following cities and boroughs, viz .- For each county of Ireland, two; for the city of Dublin, two; for the city of Cork, two; for the College of the Holy Trinity of Dublin, one; for the city of Waterford, one; for the city of Limerick, one; for the borough of Belfast, one; for the county and town of Drogheda, one; for the county and town of Carrickfergus, one; for the borough of Newry, one; for the city of Kilkenny, one; for the city of Londonderry, one; for the town of Galway, one; for the borough of Clonmel, one; for the town of Wexford, one; for the town of Youghal, one; for the town of Bandonbridge, one; for the borough of Armagh, one; for the borough of Dundalk, one; for the town of Kinsale, one; for the borough of Lisburn, one; for the borough of Sligo, one; for the borough of Catherlough,

one; for the borough of Ennis, one; for the borough of Dungarvan, one; for the borough of Downpatrick, one; for the borough of Coleraine, one; for the town of Mallow, one; for the borough of Athlone, one; for the town of New Ross, one; for the borough of Tralee, one; for the city of Cashel, one; for the borough of Dungannon, one; for the borough of Portarlington, one; for the borough of Enniskillen, one.

IV. And be it enacted, that in case of the summoning of a new when vaparliament, or if the seat of any of the said commoners shall be-cancies hap-pen in said come vacant by death or otherwise, then the said counties counties, cicities, or boroughs, or any of them, as the case may be, shall roughs, new proceed to a new election; and that all the other towns, cities, elections shall be held. corporations, or boroughs, other than the aforesaid, shall cease and all other to elect representatives to serve in parliament; and no meeting towns, &c. shall at any time hereafter be summoned, called, convened, or to elect held for the purpose of electing any person or persons to serve hereafter or act, or be considered as representative or representatives of any otherwise provided.) other place, town, city, corporation, or borough, other than the aforesaid, or as representative or representatives of the freemen, freeholders, householders, or inhabitants thereof, either in the parliament of the united kingdom or elsewhere (unless it shall hereafter be otherwise provided by the parliament of the united kingdom); and every person summoning, calling, or holding Persons concerned in any such meeting or assembly, or taking any part in any such such preelection or pretended election, shall, being thereof duly con-tended elecvicted, incur and suffer the pains and penalties ordained and suffer penalties, &c. provided by the statute of provision and præmunire made in as by 16 k. the sixteenth year of the reign of Richard the Second.

V. For the due election of the persons to be chosen to sit in on the day the respective houses of the parliament of the united kingdom on royal assent the part of Ireland, be it enacted, that on the day following that for union, on which the act for establishing the Union shall have received bishops of the royal assent, the primate of all Ireland, the lord bishop of Kildare, and Meath, the lord bishop of Kildare, and the lord bishop of Derry shall be, and they are hereby declared to be, the tatives for representatives of the lords spiritual of Ireland in the parliament of the united kingdom, for the first session thereof; day, at 12
and that the temporal peers of Ireland shall assemble at twelve
of the clock on the same day as aforesaid, in the now accustomed
place of meeting of the House of Lords of Ireland, and shall
ment of the clock on the same day as aforesaid, in the now accustomed
place of meeting of the House of Lords of Ireland, and shall
ment of the clock on the same day as aforesaid, in the now accustomed
place of meeting of the House of Lords of Ireland, and shall
ment of the clock on the same day as aforesaid, in the now accustomed
place of meeting of the House of Lords of Ireland, and shall then and there proceed to elect twenty-eight lords temporal to herein directed. represent the peerage of Ireland in the parliament of the united kingdom, in the following manner, that is to say, the names of

clerk of the crown or his deputy, who shall then and there attend for that purpose, and each of the said peers who previous to the said day, and in the present parliament, shall have actually taken his seat in the House of Lords of Ireland, and who shall there have taken the oaths, and signed the declaration, which are or shall be by law required to be taken and signed by the lords of the parliament of Ireland, before they can sit and vote in the parliament thereof, shall, when his name is called, deliver, either by himself or by his proxy, the name of such proxy having been previously entered in the books of the House of Lords of Ireland, according to the present forms and usages thereof, to the clerk of the crown or his deputy. (who shall then and there attend for that purpose,) a list of twenty-eight of the temporal peers of Ireland; and the clerk of the crown, or his deputy, shall then and there publicly read the said lists, and shall then and there cast up the said lists, and publicly declare the names of the twenty-eight lords who shall be chosen by the majority of votes in the said lists, and shall make a return of the said names to the House of Lords of the first parliament of the united kingdom, and the twenty-eight lords so chosen by the majority of votes in the said lists, shall, during their respective lives, sit as representatives of the peers of Ireland, in the House of Lords of the united kingdom, and be entitled to receive writs of summons to that and every succeeding parliament; and in case a complete election shall not be made of the whole number of twenty-eight peers, by reason of an equality of votes, the clerk of the crown shall return such number in favour of whom a complete election shall have been made in one list, and in a second list shall return the names of those peers who shall have an equality of votes, but in favour of whom, by reason of such equality, a complete election shall not have been made; and the names of the peers in the second list, for whom an equal number of votes shall have been so given, shall be written on pieces of paper of a similar form, and shall be put into a glass by the clerk of, the parliament of the united kingdom, at the table of the house of lords thereof, whilst the house is sitting, and the peer whose name shall be first drawn out by the clerk of the parliament, shall be deemed the peer elected, and so successively as often as the case may require; and whenever the seat of any of the forfeiture of twenty-eight lords temporal so elected, shall be vacated by decease or forfeiture, the chancellor, the keeper, or commissioners of the great seal of the united kingdom, for the time

Return of the 28 peers chosen, to be made to the house of lords of first parliament of united kingdom.

What shall be done where the number of votes happens to be equal.

How seats vacated by death or any of the 28 peers, shall be filled.

being, upon receiving a certificate under the hand and seal of any two lords temporal, of the parliament of the united kingdom, certifying the decease of such peer, or on view of the record of attainder of such peer, shall direct a writ to be issued under the great seal of the united kingdom, to the chancellor, the keeper, or commissioners of the great seal of Ireland, for the time being, directing him or them to cause writs to be issued by the clerk of the crown in Ireland, to every temporal peer of Ireland, who shall have sat and voted in the house of lords of Ireland before the union, or whose right to sit and vote therein, or to vote at such elections, shall, on claim made in his behalf, have been admitted by the house of lords of Ireland, before the Union, or after the Union, by the house of lords of the united kingdom; and notice shall forthwith be published by the said Notices to clerk of the crown, in the London and Dublin Gazettes, of the in the Lonissuing of such writs, and of the names and titles of all the peers don and Dublin Gato whom the same are directed, and to the said writs there shall zettes. be annexed a form of return thereof, in which a blank shall be left for the name of the peer to be elected, and the said writs shall enjoin each peer within fifty-two days from the test of the writ to return the same into the crown office of Ireland, with the blank filled up by inserting the name of the peer for whom he shall vote as the peer to succeed to the vacancy made by demise or forfeiture, as aforesaid, and the said writs and returns shall be bipartite, so as that the name of the peer to be chosen shall be written twice, that is once on each part of such writ and return, and so as that each part may also be subscribed by the peer to whom the same shall be directed, and likewise be scaled with his seal of arms, and one part of the said writs and returns so filled up, subscribed, and sealed as above, shall remain of record in the crown office of Ireland, and the other part shall be certified by the clerk of the crown to the clerk of the parliament of the united kingdom, and no peer of Ireland, except such as shall have been elected as representative peers on the part of Ireland in the house of lords of the united kingdom, and shall there have taken the oaths, and signed the declaration prescribed by law, shall, under pain of suffering such punishment as the house of lords of the united kingdom may award and adjudge, make a return to such writ, unless he shall, after the issuing thereof, and before the day on which the writ is returnable, Oaths to be have taken the oaths, and signed the declaration, which are, or taken and shall be by law required to be taken and signed by the lords of signed by the united kingdom, before they can sit and vote in the parlia-

Certificates to be transmitted with returns.

Clerk of crown to publish in London and Dublin Gazettes the name of the peer so chosen, &c.

What shall be done when votes are equal.

When a lord spiritual, being a temporal peer, sen one of the representatives of the lords temporal, the representatives of the lords spiritual shall pronext in rotation.

If on or before 1st Jan. next, his Majesty declares that the present lords and commons of G.B. shall bers of both

ment thereof, which oaths and declarations shall be either taken and subscribed in the court of chancery of Ireland, or before one of his Majesty's justices of the peace of that part of the united kingdom called Ireland, a certificate whereof, signed by such justices of the peace, or by the register of the said court of chancery, shall be transmitted by such peer, with the return, and shall be annexed to that part thereof remaining of record in the crown office of Ireland; and the clerk of the crown shall forthwith after the return day of the writs, cause to be published in the London and Dublin Gazettes, a notice of the name of the person chosen by the majority of votes, and the peer so chosen shall, during his life, be one of the peers to sit and vote on the part of Ireland in the house of lords of the united kingdom; and in case the votes shall be equal, the names of such persons who have an equal number of votes in their favor shall be written on pieces of paper of a similar form, and shall be put into a glass by the clerk of the parliament of the united kingdom, at the table of the house of lords, whilst the house is sitting, and the peer whose name shall be first drawn out by the clerk of the parliament shall be deemed the peer elected.

VI. And be it enacted, that in case any lord spiritual, being a temporal peer of the united kingdom, or being a temporal peer of that part of the united kingdom called Ireland, shall be shall be cho- chosen by the lords temporal to be one of the representatives of the lords temporal, in every such case during the life of such spiritual peer, being a temporal peer of the united kingdom, or being a temporal peer of that part of the united kingdom called Ireland, so chosen to represent the lords temporal, the rotation of representation of the spiritual lords shall proceed to the next spiritual lord without regard to such spiritual lord so chosen a temporal peer, that is to say, if such spiritual lord shall be an archbishop, then the rotation shall proceed to the archbishop whose see is next in rotation; and if such spiritual lord shall be a suffragan bishop, then the rotation shall proceed to the suf-

fragan bishop whose see is next in rotation.

VII. And whereas by the said fourth article of Union, it is agreed that if His Majesty shall, on or before the first day of January next, declare under the great seal of Great Britain, that it is expedient that the lords and commons of the present parliament of Great Britain should be the members of the respective houses of the first parliament of the united kingdom be the mem- on the part of Great Britain, then the lords and commons of the present parliament of Great Britain shall accordingly be

the members of the respective houses of the first parliament Houses for of the united kingdom on the part of Great Britain; be it G.B., the enacted for and in that case only, that the present members of members for the thirty two counties of Ireland, and the two members for and for Dubthe city of Dublin, and the two members for the city of Cork, shall be and the present declared to be beginning to the city of Cork, shall be and the present declared to be a city of Cork, shall be and the present declared to be a city of Cork, shall be a city of cork. shall be, and they are hereby declared to be by virtue of this be members act, members for the said counties and cities in the first parliament of the united kingdom, and that on a day and hour to be appointed by His Majesty under the great seal of Ireland, pre
How and when memvious to the said first day of January, one thousand eight hunders to dred and one, the members then serving for the college of the lege, and for holy Trinity of Dublin, and for each of the following cities or the dides and both boroughs, that is to say, the city of Waterford, city of Limer-ronghs herein herein named, shall and town of Carrickfergus, borough of Newry, city of Kil-bereturned. kenny, city of Londonderry, town of Galway, borough of Clonmel, town of Wexford, town of Youghal, town of Bandon Bridge, borough of Armagh, borough of Dundalk, town of Kinsale, borough of Lisburn, borough of Sligo, borough of Catherlough, borough of Ennis, borough of Dungarvan, borough of Downpatrick, borough of Coleraine, town of Mallow, borough of Athlone, town of New Ross, borough of Tralee, city of Cashel, borough of Dungannon, borough of Portarlington, and borough of Enniskillen, or any five or more of them, shall meet in the now usual place of meeting of the house of commons of Ireland, and the names of the members then serving for the said places and boroughs shall be written on separate pieces of paper, and the said papers being folded up, shall be placed in a glass or glasses, and shall successively be drawn thereout by the clerk of the crown or his deputy, who shall then and there attend for that purpose, and the first drawn name of a member of each of the aforesaid places or boroughs, shall be taken as the name of the member to serve for the said place or borough in the first parliament of the united kingdom, and a return of the said names shall be made by the clerk of the crown or his deputy, to the house of commons of the first parliament of the united kingdom, and a certificate thereof shall be given respectively by the said clerk of the crown or his deputy, to each of the members whose name shall have been Any member for any so drawn; provided always, that it may be allowed to any of said member of any of the said places or boroughs, by personal applaces may
withdraw
plication to be then and there made by him to the clerk of the his made crown or his deputy, or by declaration in writing under his are drawn,

name of the other shall

What shall he done when both names are withdrawn, or a vacancy of both members.

hand, to be transmitted by him to the clerk of the crown previous to the said day so appointed as above, to withdraw his be returned. name previous to the drawing of the names by lot, in which case, or in that of a vacancy by death or otherwise, of one of the members of any of the said places or boroughs at the time of so drawing the names, the name of the other member shall be returned as aforesaid, as the name of the member to serve for such place in the first parliament of the united kingdom; or if both members for any such place or borough shall so withdraw their names, or if there shall be a vacancy of both members at the time aforesaid, the clerk of the crown shall certify the same to the house of commons of the first parliament of the united kingdom, and shall also express in such return whether any writ shall then have issued for the election of a member or members to supply such vacancy, and if a writ shall so have issued for the election of one member only, such writ shall be superseded, and any election to be thereafter made thereupon shall be null and of no effect, and if such writ shall have issued for the election of two members, the said two members shall be chosen accordingly, and their names being returned by the clerk of the crown to the house of commons of the parliament of the united kingdom, one of the said names shall then be drawn by lot in such manner and time as the said house of commons shall direct, and the person whose name shall be so drawn, shall be deemed to be the member to sit for such place in the first parliament of the united kingdom; but if at the time aforesaid no writ shall have issued to supply such vacancy, none shall thereafter issue until the same be ordered by resolution of the house of commons of the parliament of the united kingdom, as in the case of any other vacancy of a seat in the house of commons of the parliament of the united kingdom.

When a new parliament of united kingdom shall be summoned, lord chancellor shall cause writs &c., and so on all vacancies in commons.

VIII. And be it enacted, that whenever his Majesty, his heirs and successors, shall by proclamation under the great seal of the united kingdom, summon a new parliament of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, the chancellor, keeper, or commissioners of the great seal of Ireland, shall cause writs to be issued to the several counties, cities, the college of the to be issued holy Trinity of Dublin, and boroughs in that part of the united kingdom called Ireland, specified in this act, for the election of members to serve in the parliament of the united kingdom according to the number herein before set forth; and whenever any vacancy of a seat in the house of commons of the parliament of the united kingdom for any of the said counties, cities, or

boroughs, or for the said college of the Holy Trinity of Dublin, shall arise by death or otherwise, the chancellor, keeper, or commissioners of the great seal, upon such vacancy being certified to them respectively by the the proper warrant, shall forthwith cause a writ to issue for the election of a person to fill up such vacancy, and such writs and the returns thereon respectively being returned into the crown office in that part of the united kingdom called Ireland, shall from thence be transmitted to the crown office in that part of the united kingdom called England, and be certified to the house of commons in the same manner as the like returns have been usually, or shall hereafter be certified; and copies of the said writs and returns Copies of reattested by the chancellor, keeper, or commissioners of the turns shall be preserved great seal of Ireland for the time being, shall be preserved in in crown the crown office of Ireland, and shall be evidence of such writs shall be eviand returns, in case the original writs and returns shall be lost. dence.

IX. Be it enacted, that the said bill so herein recited be taken Recited bill as a part of this act, and be deemed to all intents and purposes shall be part incorporated within the same; provided always that the said of this act. herein recited bill shall receive the royal assent, and be passed into a law previous to the first day of January, which shall be in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and one; and provided also, that if the said herein recited bill shall not receive the royal assent and be passed into a law previous to the said first day of January, which shall be in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and one, this act and every part thereof shall be of no force or validity whatsoever.

X. And be it enacted, that the great seal of Ireland may, if Great seal of Ireland. his Majesty shall so think fit, after the union be used in like manner as before the union, except where it is otherwise provided by the foregoing articles, within that part of the united kingdom called Ireland, and that his Majesty may, so long as he shall think fit, continue the privy council of Ircland to be his privy council for that part of the united kingdom called Ireland.

SCHEDULE NO. I.—A.

Of the Articles to be charged with Countervailing Duties upon Importation from Ireland into Great Britain, according to the Sixth Article of Union.

ON IMPORTATION INTO GREAT BRITAIN FROM IRELAND.

ARTICLES.	CUSTOMS.	EXCISE.		
BEER.—For every barrel consisting of thirty-six gallons, English beer	£ s. d.	£ s. d.		
measure, of Irish beer, ale, or mum, which shall be imported into Great Britain directly from Ire- land, and so in proportion for any				
greater or less quantity, to be paid by the importer thereof,	•••••	0 8 0		
BRICKS AND TILES.—For every thousand of Irish bricks, For every thousand of Irish plain tiles For every thousand of Irish pan or	••••	$\begin{array}{cccc} 0 & 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 10 \end{array}$		
ridge tiles, For every hundred of Irish paving tiles, not exceeding ten inches	•••••	0 12 10		
square, For every hundred of Irish paving tiles, exceeding ten inches square,	•••••	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		
For every thousand of Irish tiles, other than such as are herein before enumerated and described, by whatsoever name or names such tiles are or may be called or known,		0 4 10		
CANDLES.—For every pound weight avoirdupois of Irish candles of				
tallow, and other candles whatso- ever, (except wax and spermaceti,)	••••	0 0 1		

		1			
ARTICLES.	CUSTOMS.	EXCISE.			
For every pound weight avoirdupois of Irish candles which may be made of wax or spermaceti, or which are usually called or sold	£ s. d.	£	S.	d.	
either for wax or spermaceti, not- withstanding the mixture of any other ingredient therewith, CHOCOLATE, &c.—For every pound weight avoirdupois of Irish cocoa,		0	0	$3\frac{1}{2}$	
cocoa-paste, or chocolate,		0	2	0	
CORDAGE, viz.—To be used as standing rigging or other cordage made from topt hemp, the ton, containing twenty cwt Of any other sort, cable yarn, packthread, and twine, the ton, containing twenty cwt	4 10 3				
CYDER AND PERRY.—For every hogshead, consisting of sixty-three gallons, English wine measure, of Irish cyder and perry, which shall be imported as merchandize, or for sale, and which shall be sent or consigned to any factor or agent to					
sell or dispose of,		0	19	2	
GLASS.—For every square foot super- ficial measure of Irish plate glass, For every hundred weight of Irish flint, enamel, stained, paste, or phial		0	2	$2\frac{1}{4}$	
glass, For every hundred weight of Irishspread window glass, commonly	****	2	3	6	
called broad glass,		0 2 g 2	8	1	

ARTICLES.	customs.	EXCISE		Ε.
alla and Language And the many of	£ s. d.	£	s.	d.
called or known by the name of crown glass or German sheet glass,		1	9	9
For every hundred weight of vessels made use of in chemical laborato- ries and of garden glasses, and of all other vessels or utensils of com-				
mon bottle metal, manufactured in Ireland, common bottles excepted, For every hundred weight of any sort	••••	0	4	$0\frac{1}{2}$
of species of Irish glass not herein before enumerated or described, Bottles of common green glass, the	••••	2	2	0
dozen quarts	0 0 9			
Hors.—For every pound weight avoirdupois of Irish hops,		0	0	1 3/3
LEATHER, unmanufactured. — For every pound weight avoirdupois of hides of what kind soever, and of ealf skins, kips, hog skins, dog skins, and seal skins, tanned in Ireland, and of sheep skins and lamb skins, so tanned for gloves and bazils, which shall be imported in the whole hide or skin, and neither cut nor diminished in any respect				
whatever, For every dozen of goat skins tanned		0	0	$1\frac{1}{2}$
in Ireland, to resemble Spanish leather, For every dozen of sheep skins, tan-		0	4	0
ned in Ireland, for roans, being after the nature of Spanish leather, For every pound weight avoirdupois of all other hides or skins not herein before enumerated and des-	,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	0	2	3

ARTICLES.	CUSTOMS.		EXCISI		SE.	
cribed, and of all pieces and parts of hides or skins which shall be	£	5.	d.	£	8.	ıl·
tanned in Ireland, For all hides of horses, mares, and geldings, which shall be dressed in alum and salt or meal, or other-	,	• • • • •		0	0	6
wise tawed in Ireland, for each and every such hide,		••••		0	1	6
(those of horses, mares, and geldings excepted,) which shall be dressed in alum and salt or meal, or otherwise tawed in Ireland, for						
each and every such hide, For every pound weight avoirdupois of all calf-skins, kips, and veal- skins, which shall be so dressed in		••••		0	3	0
alum and salt or meal, or other- wise tawed in Ireland, and im- ported into Great Britain in the whole skin, neither cut nor dimi-						
nished in any respect whatever, For every dozen of slink calf-skins, which shall be so dressed in alum		••••		0	0	$l\frac{1}{2}$
and salt or meal, or otherwise tawed with the hair on in Ireland, For every dozen of slink calf-skins, which shall be so dressed in alum and salt or meal, or otherwise	٠	••••		0	3	0
tawed without hair in Ireland, and for every dozen of dog-skins and kid-skins, which shall be dressed in alum and salt or meal, or						
otherwise tawed in Ireland, For every pound weight avoirdupois of buck and doc-skins, which shall be dressed in alum and salt or	•	• • • •		0	1	0

On Importation into Great Britain from Ireland.

ARTICLES.	customs.	EXCISE.		
	£ s. d.	£	8.	d.
meal, or otherwise tawed in Ire-				
land, and which shall be imported				
in the whole skin, and neither cut nor diminished in any respect what-				
* *		0	0	ß
ever, For every dozen of goat-skins and			U	U
beaver-skins, which shall be dressed				
in alum and salt or meal, or				
otherwise tawed in Ireland,		0	2	0
For every pound weight avoirdupois		1		
of sheep-skins and lamb-skins,				
which shall be dressed in alum				
and salt or meal, or otherwise				
tawed in Ireland, and which shall				
be imported in the whole skin,				
and neither cut nor diminished in		1		11
any respect whatever, For every pound weight avoirdupois		0	U	11/1
of all other hides and skins not				
hereinbefore enumerated and de-				
scribed, and of all pieces or parts				
of hides or skins, which shall be				
dressed in alum and salt or meal,	and the same of th			
or otherwise tawed in Ireland,		0	0	6
For every pound weight avoirdupois				
of all buck, deer, and elk skins,				
which shall be dressed in oil in				
Ireland, and imported in the whole				
skin, and neither cut nor di-			,	0
minished in any respect whatever,		0	1	0
For every pound weight avoirdupois of all sheep and lamb skins which				
shall be dressed in oil in Ireland,		0	0	3
For every pound weight avoirdupois			U	U
of all other hides and skins, and				
parts and pieces of hides and skins,		1		
which shall be dressed in oil in				
Ireland,		0	0	- 6

ARTICLES.	CUSTOMS.	COMS. EXCISE.		
For every dozen of Irish vellum, For every dozen of Irish parchment,	£ s. d.	£ 0 0	s. 3	$\frac{d.}{5\frac{1}{2}}$ $8\frac{3}{4}$
LEATHER, manufactured into goods and wares:—				
For every pound weight avoirdupois of tanned leather manufactured and actually made into goods and	do .			
wares in Ireland, For every pound weight avoirdupois		0	0	11/2
of Irish made boots and shoes, and gloves and other manufactures				
made of tawed or dressed leather, For every pound weight avoirdupois		0	0	1
of all buck and deer skins and elk skins dressed in oil, and manu-				
factured into goods and wares in Ireland, For every pound weight avoirdupois		0	1	0
of all sheep and lamb skins dressed in oil, and manufactured into goods				
or wares in Ireland, For every pound weight avoirdupois		0	0	3
of all other hides and skins not herein before enumerated or de- scribed, dressed in oil, and manu-				
factured into goods or wares in Ireland,		0	0	6
MEAD or METHEGLIN.—For every gallon English wine measure of				
Irish mead or metheglin,	••••	0	_1	$0\frac{1}{2}$
PAPER.—For every pound weight avoirdupois of Irish paper fit or proper, or that may be used for, or				
applied to the uses or purposes of writing, drawing, and printing, or				

ARTICLES.	CUSTOMS.	EXCISE.		
	£ s. d.	£	s.	$\widehat{d}_{:}$
either of them, and of all Irish				
elephant papers and cartridge	-	0	0	91
papers, For every pound weight avoirdupois	** ***	U	U	$2\frac{1}{2}$
of Irish coloured papers, and				
whited brown papers (other than				
and except elephant and cartridge				
papers) fit and proper for the use	,			
and purpose of wrapping up				
goods, and not fit or proper, or				
capable of being used for, or				
applied to the purposes of writing,				
drawing, and printing, or either of them,		0	0	1
For every pound weight avoirdupois	*****		U	•
of Irish brown paper fit and proper				
for the use and purpose of wrap-				
ping up goods, and not fit or pro-				
per, or capable of being used for				
or applied to the uses and purposes				
of writing, drawing, and printing,		0	0	o I
or either of them,		U	0	05
For every pound weight avoirdupois of every sort or kind of Irish paper				
not herein-before enumerated or				
described, sheathing and button-				
paper and button-board excepted,		0	0	$2\frac{1}{2}$
For every one hundred weight of				_
Irish paste-board, mill-board, and				
scale board		0	10	6
For every one hundred weight of				
Irish glazed papers for clothiers		0	6	0
and hot-pressers, For every pound weight avoirdupois		0	U	U
of books bound or unbound, and of				
maps or prints, which shall be im-				
ported into Great Britain directly				
from Ireland,		0	0	2

ARTICLES.	CUSTOMS.	EX	E.	
Private Good For every yard	£ s. d.	£	S.	\overline{d} .
PRINTED GOODS.—For every yard square of Irish printed, painted, or stained papers, to serve for hangings, or other uses, For every yard in length reckoning yard wide of foreign calicoes and foreign muslins, which shall be		0	0	$1\frac{3}{4}$
printed, painted, stained, or dyed, in Ireland (except such as shall be dyed throughout of one colour), over and above any duty of customs payable on the importation of foreign calicoes and muslins, For every yard in length reckoning yard wide of all Irish printed, painted, stained, or dyed Irish made calicoes, muslins, linens and stuffs, made either of cotton or linen mixed with other materials, fus-		0	0	7
tians, velvets, velverets, dimities, and other figured stuffs, made of cotton and other materials, mixed or wholly made of cotton wool (except such as shall be dyed throughout of one colour only) For every yard in length reckoning yard wide of all Irish printed, stained, painted, or dyed Irish made stuffs not before enumerated or described, (except such as shall be dyed throughout of one colour		0	0	$3\frac{1}{2}$
only, and except stuffs made of woollen, or whereof the greatest part in value shall be woollen) For every yard in length reckoning half yard wide of all Irish printed, stained, painted, or dyed silks (silk handkerchiefs excepted), over and		0	0	3½

ARTICLES.	CU	STO	MS.	EX	CIS	E.
above any duty of customs payable	£	s.	d.	£	8.	d.
on the importation of silk For every yard square of Irish printed, stained, painted, or dyed silk handkerchiefs, and so in proportion for wide or narrow silk handkerchiefs, over and above every duty of customs payable on silk	•		٠	0	0	
SALT.—For every bushel consisting of fifty-six pounds weight avoirdupois of Irish salt or Irish glauber or Irish epsom salt For every bushel consisting of fifty-six pounds weight avoirdupois of Irish rock salt			•	0	10	~
Silk.—Manufactures of ribbons and and stuffs of silk only, the pound containing sixteen ounces	0	5	0			
Note.—Two-thirds of the weight of gauze and one-third of the weight of crape is to be deducted for gum and dress.						
Silk and ribbons of silk mixed with gold or silver, the pound containing sixteen ounces Silk stockings, silk gloves, silk fringe, silk laces, stitching or sewing silk, the pound containing sixteen oun-	0	6	8			
ces Silk, manufactures of, not otherwise enumerated or described, the pound	0	3	0			
containing sixteen ounces	0	4	0			
Stuffs of silk and grogram yarn, the pound containing sixteen ounces Stuffs of silk mixed with inkle or cot-	0	1	2			
ton, the pound containing sixteen ounces	0	1	8			

ARTICLES.	customs.	EXCISE.
Stuffs of silk and worsted, the pound containing sixteen ounces Stuffs of silk mixed with any other material, the pound containing six-	$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	£ s. d.
Soap.—For every pound weight avoirdupois of Irish hard cake or	0 1 3	0 0 01
For every pound weight of Irish soft soap		$\begin{array}{cccc} 0 & 0 & 2\frac{1}{4} \\ 0 & 0 & 1\frac{3}{4} \end{array}$
Spirits, British.—For every gallon English wine measure of spirits, aqua vitæ, or strong waters, which shall be distilled or made in Ireland, and imported at a strength not exceeding one to ten over hydrometer proof Note.—Spirits above the strength of one to ten will be charged in proportion, and on sweetened or compounded spirits the duty will be computed upon the highest degree of strength at which such spirits can be made.		$0 5 1 \frac{1}{4}$
STARCH.—For every pound weight of Irish starch, or hair powder, of what kind soever	••••	$0 0 3\frac{1}{4}$
Sugars—refined, viz., called bastards, whole or ground, the hundred weight Lumps, the hundred weight Single loaf, the hundred weight Powder loaf, and double loaf, the hundred weight Sugar candy, brown, the hundred weight	1 19 1	

ARTICLES.	customs.	E	E.	
Sugar candy, white, the hundred weight Sugar, refined, of any other sort, the hundred weight	£ s. d. 1 19 1 1 19 1	£	S.	d.
Sweets.—For every barrel, consisting of thirty-one gallons and a half, English wine measure, of Irish sweets or other Irish liquor, made by infusion, fermentation, or otherwise, from fruit or sugar, or from fruit or sugar mixed with any other materials or ingredients whatsoever, commonly called sweets, or called or distinguished by the name of made wines		2	2	0
Tobacco and Snuff.—For every pound weight avoirdupois of unmanufactured tobacco, of the growth or produce of Ireland, over and above any duty of customs For every pound weight avoirdupois of Irish manufactured short cut tobacco, or tobacco manufactured into what is commonly called or		0		1
known by the name of Spanish For every pound weight avoirdupois of Irish manufactured shag to-bacco	*****	0	1	$\frac{7}{5\frac{3}{4}}$
For every pound weight avoirdupois				
of Irish manufactured roll tobacco For every pound weight avoirdupois	*****	0	1	7
of Irish manufactured carrot to- bacco For every pound weight avoirdupois of every other sort of Irish manu-	••••	0	1	$5\frac{1}{2}$
factured tobacco, not herein be- fore enumerated or described		0	1	7

	1	1	
ARTICLES.	customs.	EXCI	SE.
For every pound weight avoirdupois of Irish manufactured rappee snuff For every pound weight avoirdupois	£ s. d.	£ s.	$\frac{d}{4\frac{1}{4}}$
of Irish manufactured Scotch snuff For every pound weight avoirdupois of Irish manufactured brown	••••	0 1	$10\frac{1}{2}$
Scotch snuff For every pound weight avoirdupois of Irish manufactured tobacco	*****	0 1	33/4
stalk flour For every pound weight avoirdupois of every other sort or kind of Irish manufactured snuff, or snuff work not herein before enumerated	•••••	0 1	9
or described Tobacco, unmannufactured, the pound	$0 0 6_{\bar{2}\bar{9}}$	0 1	$10\frac{1}{2}$
VERJUICE.—For every hogshead consisting of sixty-three gallons, English wine measure, of Irish verjuice		0 7	8
VINEGAR.—For every barrel consisting of thirty-four gallons, English beer measure, of Irish vinegar		0 12	81
Wire.—For every ounce Troy weight of Irish gilt wire	****		$9\frac{1}{4}$
For every ounce Troy of Irish silver wire For every pound weight avoirdu-	••••	0 0	
pois of Irish gold thread, gold lace, or gold fringe, made of plate wire spun upon silk For every pound weight avoirdupois		0 7	8
of Irish silver thread, silver lace, or silver fringe, made of plate wire spun upon silk		0 5	9

SCHEDULE NO. I.—B.

Of the Articles to be charged with Countervailing Duties upon Importation from Great Britain into Ireland, according to the Sixth Article of Union.

ON IMPORTATION INTO IRELAND FROM GREAT BRITAIN.

ARTICLES.			
BEER.	£	8.	d
For and upon every barrel containing thirty-two gallons imported from Great Britain	0	4	6
GLASS BOTTLES.			
For and upon each reputed quart	0	0	$0\frac{1}{4}$
LEATHER, unmanufactured.			
For and upon each pound in every hide or skin or			
piece of any such hide or skin, of what kind or denomination soever, other than such as are hereinafter mentioned and described For and upon each hide of horses, mares, or	0	0	1
geldings	0	1	0
For and upon all skins called veal skins, and all skins of hogs, for every dozen skins thereof, and after the same rate for any greater or less		_	
quantity For and upon all skins for shoes and other like purposes, and all seal skins, for every dozen thereof, and after the same rate for any greater	U	5	O
or less quantity	0	2	6
For and upon all skins for bookbinders' use, for every dozen thereof, and after the same rate for			
any greater or less quantity For and upon all goat skins tanned with shumack,	0	1	0
or otherwise to resemble Spanish leather, and all sheep skins tanned for roans, being after the			
nature of Spanish leather, for every pound		0	1
weight avoirdupois	0	0	1

ARTICLES.			
For and upon all sheep and lamb skins tanned for gloves and basils, for every pound weight avoirdupois, and so in proportion for any greater or less quantity	£		$0\frac{1}{2}$
LEATHER dressed in Oil.			
For and upon every hide and skin, and piece of such hide and skin, other than such as are hereinafter mentioned or described, for every			
pound weight avoirdupois For and upon all deer-skins, goat-skins, and beaver-skins, for every pound weight thereof	0	0	2
avoirdupois For and upon all calf-skins, for every pound	0	0	3
weight thereof avoirdupois For and upon all sheep and lamb-skins, for every	0	0	2
pound weight avoirdupois	0	0	$l\frac{1}{2}$
VELLUM and PARCHMENT.			
For and upon every dozen skins of vellum For and upon every dozen skins of parchment	0	0	6
LEATHER manufactured into Goods and Wares.			
For and upon all tanned leather manufactured into goods and wares, whereof leather is the most valuable part, the following duties, viz:— For and upon every pound weight avoirdupois of tanned leather, manufactured and actually made into goods and wares in Great Britain, of			
leather only, or of which leather makes the most valuable part For and upon every pound weight avoirdupois of tawed or dressed leather, manufactured and actually made in Great Britain, of leather only, or of which leather makes the most valuable	0	0	1
part	0	0	1

ARTICLES.			
For and upon every pound weight avoirdupois of all buck and deer-skins and elk-skins dressed in oil, and manufactured into goods and wares in Great Britain, of leather only, or of which	£	s.	d.
leather makes the most valuable part For and upon every pound weight avoirdupois of all sheep and lamb skins dressed in oil, and manufactured into goods and wares, in Great Britain, of leather only, or of which leather makes	0	0	3
the most valuable part For and upon every pound weight avoirdupois of all other hides and skins, not herein-before enumerated or described, dressed in oil, and manufactured into goods and wares, in Great Britain,	0	0	$0\frac{1}{2}$
of leather only, or of which leather makes the most valuable part PAPER.	0	0	2
For and upon every pound weight avoirdupois of paper fit or proper for, or that may be used for, or applied to the uses or purposes of writing, drawing, or printing, or either of them, and all			
elephant paper, and all cartridge paper For every pound weight avoirdupois of all coloured paper, and whited brown papers, other than and except elephant and cartridge paper, fit or proper for the uses or purposes of wrapping up	0	0	$2\frac{1}{2}$
goods, and not fit or proper, or capable of being used for, or applied to the uses or purposes of writing, drawing, and printing, or either of them, and also except paper hangings For every pound weight avoirdupois of brown paper fit and proper for the use or purpose of wrapping up goods, and not fit or proper, or capable of being used for, or applied to the uses	0	0	1
or purposes of writing, drawing, or printing, or either of them	0	0	$0\frac{1}{2}$

ARTICLES.			
For and upon every one hundred weight of glazed paper proper for clothiers and hot-pressers, and	£	s.	d.
so in proportion for any greater or less quantity For and upon every one hundred weight of paste-	0	5	0
board, millboard, and scaleboard, and so in proportion for any greater or less quantity For and upon every pound weight of every sort or kind of paper, not herein before particularly enumerated or described, other than and except papers commonly called and known by the names of sheathing paper and button paper, or	0	10	0
button board and paper hangings	0	0	$2\frac{1}{2}$
STAINED PAPER. For and upon every square yard of printed, painted, or stained paper for hangings or other uses, and so in proportion for any greater or less quantity For and upon every pound weight avoirdupois of books bound or unbound, and of maps or prints, which shall be imported into Ireland from	0	0	1
Great Britain	0	0	2
CARDS. For and upon every pack of printed, painted, or playing cards made or manufactured in Great Britain	0	1	5
DICE.			
For and upon every pair of dice made or manufac- tured in Great Britain	0	10	0
WROUGHT PLATE.			
For and upon every ounce Troy weight of gold or silver plate which shall be wrought, made, or			

ARTICLES.			
4 11 2 21 11 11	£	s.	d.
manufactured in Great Britain, and imported into Ireland	0	0	6
SILK MANUFACTURE.—For and upon all silks being of the manufacture of Great Britain, and imported directly from thence, the following duties, viz.			
For and upon all ribbons and stuffs of silk only, for every pound weight thereof containing six-			
For and upon all silk and ribbons of silk mixed with gold or silver, for every pound weight	0	2	1
thereof containing sixteen ounces For and upon all silk stockings, silk gloves, silk fringe, silk laces, stitching and sewing silk, for every pound weight thereof containing sixteen	0	2	9
ounces For and upon all manufactures of silk not otherwise enumerated or described, for every pound	0	1	3
weight thereof containing sixteen ounces For and upon all stuffs of silk and grogram yarn,	0	1	8
the pound weight containing sixteen ounces For and upon all stuffs of silk mixed with inkle or cotton, the pound weight containing sixteen	0	0	6
ounces For and upon all stuffs of silk and worsted mixed,	0	0	9
the pound weight containing sixteen ounces For and upon all stuffs of silk mixed with any other material, the pound weight containing	0	0	4
sixteen ounces	0	0	$6\frac{1}{2}$
Spirits.—For and upon every gallon of spirits being of the manufacture of Great Britain, and	0	3	7
imported from thence, a duty of		3	4
Sugar.—Refined, of the manufacture of Great Britain, and imported directly from thence, the following duties, viz.—			

ARTICLES.			
For and upon all sugar, called bastards, white or	£	8.	d.
ground, the hundred weight, containing 112 pounds For and upon all sugar, called lumps, the hun-	0	19	8
dred weight, containing 112 pounds For and upon all sugar, called single loaf sugar,	1	16	$10\frac{3}{4}$
the hundred weight, containing 112 pounds, For and upon all sugar, called powder loaf, and	1	19	4
double loaf, the hundred weight, containing 112 pounds For and upon all sugar, called sugar candy,	2	2	4
brown, the hundred weight, containing 112 pounds	1	16	10
white, the hundred weight, containing 112 pounds	2	2	4
the hundred weight, containing 112 pounds	2	2	4
Sweets.—For and upon every barrel, containing thirty-two gallons wine measure, of British sweets, or other British liquor, made by infusion, fermentation, or otherwise, from fruit or sugar, or from fruit and sugar mixed with any other material or ingredients whatsoever, commonly called sweets, or called or distinguished			
by the name of made wines	0	10	0
For and upon every gallon of mead or metheglin, For and upon every barrel, containing thirty-two		0	4
gallons, of vinegar TOBACCO AND SNUFF.—For and upon every pound weight avoirdupois of unmanufactured tobacco of the growth or produce of Great Britain, over and above any duty of customs now payable			5

ARTICLES.			
	£	s.	\overrightarrow{d} .
For and upon every pound weight of British manu-			
factured short cut tobacco, or tobacco manufac-			
tured into what is commonly called and known			
by the name of Spanish	0	1	07
For and upon every pound weight of British ma-	Ů		010
nufactured shag tobacco, cut	0	0	11
For and upon every pound weight of British ma-	·		• •
nufactured roll tobacco	0	- 1	$0\frac{7}{10}$
For and upon every pound weight of British ma-	U		10
nufactured carrot tobacco	0	0	11
	U	U	1.1
For and upon every pound weight of every other sort of British manufactured tobacco not			
	0	1	0.7
herein before enumerated or described	U	1	$0_{\frac{7}{10}}$
For and upon every pound weight avoirdupois of	0	0	101
British manufactured rappee snuff	0	U	$10\frac{1}{4}$
For and upon every pound weight of British ma-		,	4
nufactured snuff, called Scotch snuff	U	1	4
For and upon every pound weight of British ma-		^	0.3
nufactured snuff, called brown Scotch snuff	0	0	$9\frac{3}{4}$
For and upon every pound weight of British ma-			
nufactured stalk flower	0	1	3
For and upon every pound weight of every other			
sort or kind of British manufactured snuff or			
snuff-work not herein before enumerated or			
described	0	1	4

COPY OF LORDS' PROTEST.

26th MARCH, 1800.

DISSENTIENT.

First—Because that in the present awful state of affairs, protest, when the most unremitting industry is made use of to unhinge every established government in Europe—when revolutionary principles have produced the overthrow of several ancient established governments, we think every loyal subject who regards the liberties of his country, called upon to rally round the constitution and to preserve its stability. We, therefore, cannot help protesting against the rashness of the minister, who in such times hazards the experiment of annihilating that constitution, which has for so many ages maintained the connexion between great Britain and Ireland, and of substituting in its stead, in opposition to the general voice of the nation, a new system, totally subversive of every fundamental principle of that constitution, which we consider as the best security for those liberties which the subjects of Ireland now enjoy.

Second—Because however willing we now are, and always have been, to contribute in proportion to our means to the support and defence of the empire, we hold it our bounden duty, before that we shall irrevocably enter into any engagement to take upon ourselves any particular proportion of the expenses of the empire, to ascertain the probable amount of such proportion, to enquire into the ability of Ireland to discharge the same, and to examine whether such part be proportionate to the relative abilities of the two nations. Upon such enquiry, we find that the expense incurred by Great Britain in the year 1799, amounted to upwards of thirty-two millions, and that which was incurred by Ireland in the said year amounted to upwards of six millions, 2-17ths of which sums (the proposed proportion) amount to upwards of £4,400,000, which sum, added to the present interest of the debt incurred by Ireland, and the discharge of her annuities, amounting to £1,400,000, and the interest of the loan of this year, amounting to about £250,000, will make the annual charge upon Ireland amount to £6,050,000. It appears to us that the produce of our revenue, including the estimated amount of the taxes laid on this session, do not

exceed £2,800,000, and consequently they will fall short by £3,250,000 of the sum necessary to discharge such proportionate part of the expenses of the empire. In order to ascertain the relative abilities of the two nations, their respective balances of trade with the whole world have been compared, and it appears from thence that such balance in favour of Great Britain amounts to the sum of £14,800,000, and that such balance in favour of Ireland, according to the returns laid before this house, amount to the sum of £599,312; taking therefore the balance of trade as a criterion of ability, the proproportion would be as twenty-nine to one. Enquiry likewise having been made into the current cash in circulation in both kingdoms, it appears that in the year 1777 the current cash in Great Britain was calculated at £43,000,950, and it is computed by persons, the best informed upon that subject in this kingdom, that the current cash in Ireland may now amount to between £3,000,000 and £3,500,000; taking it therefore at the latter, the proportion should be as twelve to one. Considering it in another very essential point of view, the influx and eflux of money into the respective kingdoms, it appears that Great Britain receives, by remittances to persons having property in the East and West Indies who reside in Great Britain, £4,000,000 sterling. We do not know of any influx of money into Ireland, save that of £509,312, the balance of her trade; and it appears to us that she annually remits to Great Britain, on account of her debts, the sum of £720,000, and on account of the pay of 3,234 men serving in Great Britain, the sum of £101,570. These annual drains, together with the remittances to absentees, (probably little short of £2,000,000,) we consider to have occasioned the high rate of exchange with Great Britain during the last twelve months, from 3 to 5 per cent. above par, notwithstanding that during that period £3,000,000 have been borrowed in Great Britain and remitted to Ireland. We do not know of any fund to resort to for raising the said deficiency of £3,250,000, save by taxation, an addition to which cannot, in any considerable degree, be supported; and by resorting to her landed property, the gross contents of which being but eleven million plantation acres, we cannot estimate at more than the annual rent of £5,500,000. We observe that the large sums of money borrowed by Ireland within these four years, have been for the most part raised in Great Britain, owing to the total disability of procuring them in Ireland. The facility of raising money in Great Britain and the difficulty found in raising any in

Ireland, clearly demonstrates the opulence of the one nation, and the poverty of the other. Under such circumstances it appears to us, that if this kingdom should take upon herself irrevocably the payment of 2-17ths of such expenses, she will not have means to perform her engagement, unless by charging her landed property with 12 or 13 shillings in the pound. It must end in the draining from her her last guinea—in totally annihilating her trade, for want of capital—in rendering the taxes unproductive—and, consequently, in finally putting her into a state of bankruptcy. We think ourselves called upon to protest against a measure so ruinous to this country, and to place the responsibility for its consequences upon such persons as have brought it forward and supported it.

For these reasons, and believing the above statement to be

accurate, we thus record our dissent.

3rd—For these, and many other reasons too tedious and too obvious to be here dwelt upon, we have deemed it our bounden duty, both to ourselves and to our descendants, thus publicly to declare our dissent from those resolutions approving of the measure of a legislative Union, which have passed this house, calling on our latest posterity to entreat, that in virtue of this our solemn declaration, they will acquit us of having been in anywise instrumental to their degradation, and to the ruin of that country which they may hereafter inhabit.

LEINSTER. DOWNSHIRE. Меатн. GRANARD. Ludlow, by proxy. Moira, by proxy. ARRAN. CHARLEMONT. MOUNTCASHEL. FARNHAM. DILLON. STRANGFORD. Powerscourt. DE VESCI, by proxy. WM. DOWN & CONNOR. RD. WATERFORD & LISMORE. LOUTH. Massy, by proxy. RIVERSDALE, by proxy. SUNDERLIN, for the first reason.



MR. O'CONNELL'S PLAN

FOR THE

RE-CONSTRUCTION OF THE IRISH PARLIAMENT.

Report of the Committee of the National Association of Ireland, to whom it was referred to suggest a Proposal, to be converted into a Law for the Re-construction of the House of Commons of Ireland.

The House of Commons of Ireland, before the Union, consisted of 300 members; of these 64 were returned by open constituencies from the 32 counties. These constituencies were not only open, but numerous—the forty-shilling franchise being so low, as naturally to admit a great number of the Irish people into the class of electors. To these 64 may be added the 2 representatives for the University of Dublin, making altogether 66, and leaving 234 for the cities, towns, and boroughs of Ireland (many of these were close and nomination boroughs, of which class no less than 40 were created in one day by James the 1st). Of the remainder almost all the great towns had open constituencies, as had also several of the lesser towns. In the open constituencies the franchises were in the hands of freemen, of freeholders down to 40s.; and in several towns, of occupiers of houses of £5 annual value.

By the Union, the counties were left in possession of their representatives; the city of Dublin, and the city of Cork, were allowed to retain two members each. There was one member for the University of Dublin, and thirty-one were distributed among the towns, of which eighteen at least were close or nomination boroughs.

Thus, two-thirds of the entire representation of Ireland was struck off by the Union, and the remaining one-third was distributed in the manner we have already stated.

The Reform Bill restored the second member to the University of Dublin, and also to each of the towns of Waterford, Limerick, Galway, and Belfast, thus adding five to the Irish

representation, being in all 105 members.

Such is the state of facts with which we have to deal, in suggesting a proposal for the restoration of the Irish House of Commons. It is plain that such new representation must necessarily be founded on a new distribution of members; for which purpose the English Reform Act furnishes a precedent which we deem to be of great utility. By that bill additional members were given to the English counties, graduated rather loosely upon the population of each ;- We have adopted a not

dissimilar classification.

The boroughs disfranchised at the Union, can have no claim to be restored. Many of them were merely the sites of ancient towns and villages, of which almost all trace has been lost; and of which the memory has almost totally perished since they ceased to afford a pretext for furnishing seats in the Commons House of Parliament. For almost all of them compensation in money was given to the boroughmongers, who had, against every constitutional principle, usurped the power of nominating members. And if there are (as there certainly are) included in our proposed plan, some of the towns whose representation was suppressed at the Union, that representation belonged to individuals, or to fictitious corporations, and the proposed new representation relates only to the amount of their population, and their present relative importance, not to any retrospect to their former condition.

With respect to the counties, we suggest that the only county in Ireland with less than 100,000 inhabitants—namely, Carlow -should get an increase of one member; that every other county, being above 100,000 inhabitants, should get an increase of two members. Thus Carlow county would have three mem-

bers, and every other county at least four.

We suggest that every county ranging about 150,000 inhabitants, should get an increase of three members, so as to have

We suggest that every county having about 250,000 inhabitants, should get an increase of four members, so as to have six in all.

We propose that the only county in Ircland having 400,000 inhabitants, and not amounting to 500,000—namely, the county of Tipperary—should get eight members; and that the county of Cork, having more than 700,000 inhabitants, should have twelve members.

The total for the counties will thus be 173 members.

With respect to the remaining 127 members, we propose that

they should be distributed as follows:

First—That the city of Dublin, having more than 200,000 inhabitants, should have eight representatives; four for the parts north of the Liffey, and four for the parts south of the Liffey; and that the University of Dublin should continue, with its constituency upon the present basis, to send two members to parliament.

We propose, that the city of Cork, having more than 104,000

inhabitants, should have five members.

We propose that the city of Limerick, and the town of Belfast, having each of them more than 50,000 inhabitants,

should send four members each to parliament.

We propose that the town of Galway, and the cities of Waterford and Kilkenny, having each of them more than 20,000 inhabitants, should send three members each to parliament.

We propose that the other towns having 7,000 inhabitants, or at least above 6,900, should each send two members to parliament; and that 49 other towns, the next highest in the ratio of population, should have one member each; so as to make up in all the 300 members.

Our proposed plan will be more distinctly understood from the following Schedule of the different places to return members to the Irish parliament—of their relative population—and

of the number of members to be assigned to each :-

cou	NTY.		POPULATION.	MEMBERS.
			016.000	0
Antrim,	• • •	•••	316,909	6
Armagh,	•••	• • •	220,134	5
Carlow,	• • •	•••	81,988	3
Cavan,	***	• • •	227,933	5
Clare,	•••	• • •	258,322	6
Cork,	***	• • •	713,716	12
Donegal,	• •	••	289,149	6
Down,	• • •	• • •	352,012	7
Dublin County,	• • •	•••	176,012	5
Fermanagh,	•••	•••	149,763	5
Galway,	•••		381,564	7
Kerry,			263,126	6
Kildare,	•••	***	108,424	4
Kilkenny,		•••	169,945	5
King's County,		***	144,225	4
Leitrim,		•••	141,524	4
Limerick,		***	248,801	6
Londonderry,		• • •	222,012	5
Longford,			112,558	4
Louth,			107,481	4
Mayo,			366,328	7
Meath,			176,826	5
Monaghan,			195,536	5
Queen's County,			145,851	4
Roscommon,	• • •		249,613	6
Sligo,	• • •		171,765	5
Tipperary,		• • •	402,563	8
Tyrone,			304,468	6
Waterford,	•••	• • •	148,233	5
Westmeath,	•••		136,872	4
Wexford,		•••	182,713	5
Wicklow,	***	•••	121,557	4
	Country	Iembers,	•	173

	точ	wns.		POPULATION.	MEMBERS.
Ardee, Arklow,		•••	•••	3,975 4,383	1 1
Armagh,		•••		9,470	2

			1	
TOWNS	•		POPULATION.	MEMBERS.
Athlone,			11,406	$_2$
Athy,			4,494	1
Ballina,	•••		5,510	1
Ballinasloe,	•••		4,615	i
Ballymena,	•••		4,067	ī
Ballyshannon,	•••		3,775	i
Bandon Bridge,	•••		9,917	2
Bantry,	•••	•••	4,275	1
Belfast,	•••	•••	53,287	4
Boyle,	•••	***	3,433	î
Bray,	•••	•••	3,758	i
	•••	•••	9,114	2
Carlow,	• • •	••	3,480	ī
Cahir,	• • •	• • •	6,111	1
Callan,	• • •	• • •	8,706	2
Carrickfergus,	• • •	• • •		2
Carrick-on-Suir,	***	• • •	9,626	2
Cashel,	• • •	***	6,971	
Castlebar,	***	•••	6,373	1
Charleville,	***	• • •	4,766	1
Clonmel,	***	• • •	15,134	2
Clonakilty,	• • •	• •	3,807	1
Coleraine,		• • •	5,752	1
Cork City,	•••		107,016	5
Cove,	***		6,966	1
Dingle,	••		4,327	1
Downpatrick,			4,784	1
Dungarvan,			6,527	1
Dublin City,			204,155	8
Dublin University,	• • •			2
Dundalk,			_ 10,078	2
Dungannon,			3,515	1
Drogheda,		4	17,365	2
Ennis,			7,711	2
Enniscorthy,			5,955	1
Enniskillen,		• •	6,116	1
Fermoy,	•••		6,976	2
Fethard, County T			3,405	1
Galway Town,	.PPorta. J,		33,120	3
Garway Town, Gort,	•••		3,627	1
Kells,			4,326	î
Kilrush,	• • •	•••	3,996	î
Ixiirusii,	• •	• •	0,000	

TOW	NS.		POPULATION.	MEMBERS.
Kinsale,			7,312	2
Kilkenny City,			23,741	3
Killarney,			6,910	2
Limerick City,			66,554	4
Lisburn,			5,218	1
Londonderry,			10,130	2
Longford,			4,516	1
Loughrea,			6,268	î
Mallow,			5,229	i
Mountmellick,			4,577	ī
Mitchelstown,			3,545	î
Monaghan,			3,848	î
Mullingar,			4,995	î
Navan,			4,416	î
Naas,			3,808	ĩ
Nenagh,			8,466	$\overline{2}$
New Ross,	• •		5,011	ī
Newtownards.		• •	4,442	î
Newry,			13,064	$\hat{2}$
Parsonstown,			6,595	ī
Rathkeale,			4,972	ĵ
Roscommon,			3,306	î
Roscrea,			5,512	î
Sligo,			15,152	$\tilde{2}$
Skibbereen,			4,429	1
Strabane,			4,700	î
Tipperary,			6,972	$\hat{f 2}$
Thurles,			7,084	$ar{2}$
Tralee,			9,568	$\overline{2}$
Trim,	• •		3,282	ĩ
Tuam,			6,883	î
Fullamore,			6,342	î
Waterford City,			28,821	3
Westport,			4,448	í
Wexford,			10,673	$\overset{\cdot}{2}$
Youghal,			9,608	$oldsymbol{ar{2}}$
7 70 70 70 70 70 70 70 70 70 70 70 70 70		1	3,000	
Memb	ers for	Cities and	Towns.	127
,,		Counties,	_ , ,	173

Total Representatives,

300

It has been considered that the most impartial way to ascertain the relative importance of the several towns, and of the number of members they should return, was to take the population returns of 1831. Those returns having been made for a quite different purpose, are, when used for our present purpose, of unquestionable impartiality.

The next topic to which our attention has been called, is the nature of the elective franchise of the constituencies who are

to return these members.

We are unanimously and decidedly of opinion that the franchise should be *Household Suffrage*; that is, that every man inhabiting a house, either as owner or occupier, for the space of three months before the election, shall have a vote; care being taken that no person shall vote at more than one place.

We are also decidedly of opinion, that the mode of voting should be by *Ballot*, which, by taking proper precautions, can

be rendered perfectly secret.

Such is the proposal we suggest for the re-construction of the Irish House of Commons—Household Suffrage—Vote by Ballot—and the duration of Parliament not to be beyond three years.

No oath or declaration to be taken by the members of parliament, save the oath or declaration of allegiance to her Ma-

jesty, her heirs and successors.

No religious test whatsoever to be taken.

The House of Lords would, of course, consist of all the peers of Ireland, whether created before the Union or since: and we conceive that it would be highly desirable, that her Majesty should be recommended to elevate to the peerage in Ireland, some twenty to thirty among the principal resident land-owners in this country; selecting such as have been for years generally resident, and are likely to continue so.

It may be alleged, that in proposing to give to the agricultural districts 173 members, and to the towns, or mercantile interests, but 127, an undue proportion is thus struck between the one and the other. But we think there is no weight in such an objection. There is no antagonism of interest between the mercantile and agricultural classes in Ireland; and we consider that in point of fact, the greatest interest our commercial men can have, is in the increase of the number of landed proprietors, whose duty or whose ambition would lead them to continue to reside in their respective counties: thus

employing the income derived from lands in Ireland, in the consumption of the articles in which our mercantile men prin-

cipally deal.

It may be objected, that it is premature to bring before the public the plan for the re-construction of the Irish Parliament, before we have made more progress towards that combination of public opinion from which alone we can hope for success. But we deem it most fair and reasonable, at the earliest possible stage of that agitation which can terminate only in the Repeal, to submit to the good sense, and calm consideration of the people of Ireland, the best mode of re-constituting their house of commons. At present our plan can be discussed coolly and dispassionately, and its defects, if any, can be pointed out without creating heat or animosity. Not so, if the period of the Repeal were actually at hand. Then local interests would create or magnify objections; and accusations of personal or particular motives might be made, which cannot Now be even dreamt of. We have therefore deemed it the wisest course to procure the discussion and adoption of a settled plan of re-construction of the Irish House of Commons, at a period when it can be discussed and adopted, without the smallest intermixture of passion, prejudice, or private interest.

The next consideration naturally is—in what mode we propose to carry out our plan for the re-construction of the Irish House of Commons. The answer is—that we propose to have it passed into law by the United Parliament, in the usual course; and that we expect that when the general voice of Ireland is sufficiently ascertained, there will be no difficulty in procuring the assent of the legislature to the passing of such

an act.

But there are other modes in which the Crown may easily procure the restoration of the Irish legislature, should her

Majesty be so advised.

Let it be recollected, that in the judgment of our present Lord Chancellor, who is keeper (in Ireland) of her Majesty's conscience, the Union was in itself a nullity; that is his precise expression; it was his solemn judgment—and he is bound by it.

The Queen therefore might be advised to act in either of

these two ways:-

Firstly—She may call together in Dublin, by intimation, or invitation, the 105 members now representing Irish constituencies, more than forty of them (that is more than sufficient to

make a house,) would certainly attend any royal summons, however informal. And Her Majesty might easily bring together a sufficient number of the Irish peers. And thus, with the assent of her Majesty, an ordinance might be enacted, adopting the plan we have suggested for re-constructing the Irish Parliament, and authorising the issuing of writs or summonses accordingly.

The parliament, when met under such writs or summonses, would have no difficulty in enacting laws, with the assent of the Queen, sanctioning their own appointment, and confirmatory

of their own legislative powers.

Secondly—Let it be recollected, that it was originally the exclusive prerogative of the Crown to issue to such places as it thought fit, writs for the election of members of parliament; and this prerogative continued to be exercised down to the reign of Queen Anne. The familiar fact of the creation in Ireland by King James the First of no less than forty boroughs in a single day—boroughs that from that time continued to send members to parliament until the Union—proves in the strongest way the power to exercise (as it also shews the abuse of) this prerogative.

Now there is no act of parliament in Ireland taking away the prerogative from the crown. It therefore continues to exist, unimpeached and undiminished; and her Majesty might be advised at once to issue writs to all the counties, and to the several towns named in our proposed plan; and then she may either bring together, or create, a sufficient number of Irish peers to

constitute the Irish parliament.

It is quite true, that the proposal we suggest, is one intended to be enacted by the *united* parliament; but we were not thereby prevented from pointing out the other means (such as the two modes above described) for obtaining the same object. To each of such modes there are abundant technical and legal objections, but we believe there is no Constitutional Difficulty in the way.

The constitution of these realms is suited to meet every emergency; and the most irregular proceedings of parliament

have been sanctioned, and become the law of the land.

For instance, in the year 1399 the parliament dethroned Richard the Second, the legitimate monarch, and conferred the crown upon Henry the Fourth, who had no kind of title to that crown, nor was he even heir of succession to Richard. This parliamentary act regulated the succession of the crown for

three generations, and several of the statutes passed during that

interval, are binding at the present day.

Again, the parliament, in the instance of Edward the Fourth, assumed the like power of disposing of the crown; taking it away from the house of Lancaster, and conferring it upon that of York.

Again, the case of Henry the Seventh is yet stronger. The parliament in 1485, after the battle of Bosworth, gave him a legal title to the crown, although he had no other title than that most irregular law. It is true he afterwards married the heiress of the house of York; but he took especial care, and indeed the most distinct modes, of disavowing any title as derived from her. And her Majesty, whose title is so indisputable, derives that title as one of his descendants.

But the strongest instance remains behind. It is the case of King William the Third, of "glorious, pious, and immortal memory." The Convention Parliament at the revolution, without any king at all, dethroned the reigning and then legitimate

monarch, James the Second.

They used the word "abdicate;" but a word is nothing. The actual fact is, that they dethroned King James, and enthroned King William, who had no species of claim to be king—who had no kind of legal right to be king of England, as he was, not only during his wife's lifetime, but for some years after her decease. He had, we repeat, no other right, save that excellent and efficient one, of a most irregular act of parliament.

No persons can be more thoroughly convinced than we are, that a most legitimate right to the crown was acquired by the transactions of the revolution of 1688; but we are quite certain that a perfect title was made out by these transactions. And our allegiance to our most gracious sovereign, whom may God long preserve, is much enhanced by the principles which were involved in, and sanctioned by the revolution.

But what a host of legal and technical objections were and may be raised against each and all the precedents which we have thus cited, including the Glorious Revolution itself! We venture to assert, that none greater could be stated to either of the modes of repealing the Union we have suggested—no, nor

by any comparison so great!

Is was indeed from these instances that our constitutional lawyers, and particularly Judge Blackstone, have spoken "of the omnipotence of parliament." There is no possible reason

why an Irish parliament should not be as omnipotent in Ireland

as an English parliament in England.

Thus, with the most unbroken and affectionate loyalty to our most gracious and beloved sovereign the Queen, we do trust and hope we shall yet live to see her open her faithful parliament of Ireland with a speech from her Irish throne, and thus confer justice on her devotedly attached and loyal subjects, the People of Ireland.

GOD SAVE THE QUEEN.

DANIEL O'CONNELL,

Chairman of the Committee.

21st April, 1840.



INDEX

TO

THE ARGUMENT FOR IRELAND.

DEBT	Page.
Of Ircland, originated in the reign of William III.	, 9
Greatly swelled by her efforts to assist England -	
(For further references to it, see the article on the	
"Taxation Injustice.")	
TESTIMONIES TO IRISH MISERY	
By Parliamentary Commissions	22-23
REPRESENTATION IN PARLIAMENT.	
Lord Castlereagh's calculation at the Union -	5152
Data on the present state of our representation -	5358
FRANCHISES.	
Extracts from Mr. O'Connell's Reports, shewing the	
injustices in this respect	59—68
COMPENSATION	
To Irish Borough-owners at the Union	68-72
THE "REGENCY"	
Dispute of 1789	73-76
"IRISH PARLIAMENT,"	
Its good deeds	76—77
Mr. O'Connell's Plan for the Re-construction of	173-483

353 1 0	rage.
Molyneux's Case	78
Poyning's Law (1495)	86
Attempts of the Irish Parliament before 1782, to	
assert its independence	87—88
Explanation of its alleged corruption and profligacy	
in 1753	91
Its achievement in 1782, with extracts from the	
debates at that time	94107
Resolutions of Volunteer Corps, Grand Juries, &c.,	
in favor of legislative independence	109-151
THE COMMERCIAL INJUSTICES.	
Extracts from English writers advising or confessing	
these injustices	153156
Do. from Pitt, Grenville, Huskisson, Labouchere -	157
Beginning of the Commercial Injustices, 1660 -	159
Restrictions on our exports to England and the	
Colonies, and on our import from the latter -	160
Attack on our woollen manufacture	161-170
The linen manufacture no fair equivalent -	171—178
Other minor injustices	186—189
Why England relaxed her restrictions on our trade	192—193
•	_200 <u>240</u>
The noted "Commercial Propositions" of 1785	200 200
Their defects as first proposed, and as "amended"	203—220
And ultimate abandonment	203—220
Ineffectual struggles between 1782 and 1800, to get	221
	920 926
rid of the remaining restrictions	230—236
Commercial arrangements at the Union	237—240
Addenda, respecting the linen trade—decay of ma-	0.50
nufactures—sufferings of tradesmen	250256
on the decrease of valuable exports, and	240
of home consumption of home-produce	256—259
Extracts from Staunton's answer to	
Montgomery Martin	261 & seq.

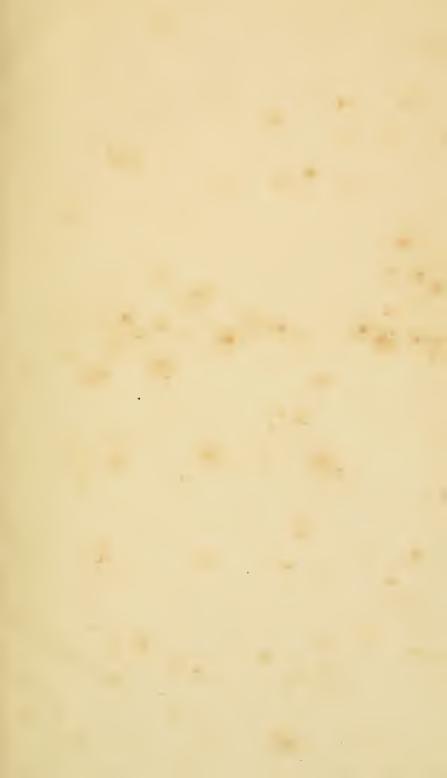
N

	Page.
EANS BY WHICH THE UNION WAS CARRIE	D.
Mr. O'Connell's Report thereon, giving the testimony	
of Plunkett, Bushe, Saurin, &c	277 - 286
Lord Grey's testimony on the same subject -	287
HE "TAXATION" INJUSTICE.	
Section I.—Repeal Association Petition of 1842	
against fiscal injustices of the Union, taken as the	
text of this article.—Castlereagh on the principle	
of the fiscal arrangement.—Scotland's "Equi-	
valent" at her Union.—Ireland none whatever.—	
Castlereagh on the Union rates of contribution.—	
Irish Lords against them.—Ditto, Mr. Speaker	
Foster.—Vesey Fitzgerald and Goulbourn sub-	
sequently confessed them unjust.—Castlereagh's	
pretences of fiscal relief to Ireland by the	
Union.—Foster's answer.—Fallacy and incon-	
sistency of these pretences	289—308
Section II.—Design of the consolidation, and thus	
the entire subjection of Ireland to British debt-	
Anxiety of the various finance committees be-	
tween the Union and 1816, to bring about this	1
object—Care to run Ireland into debt, separate	
from that of England—Statement, in figures, of	
the comparative increase up to 1817, of British	
and Irish debt—Extraordinary injustice in dealing	
with the terms of the Union, that gave Ireland	
even a nominal protection—Confessions by the	
Committee of 1815, and by British ministers sub-	
sequently, of the excessive taxation of Ireland-	
Outrageous breach of the Union Act, advised by	
the Committee of 1815, and carried out—No sub-	
stantial pretence to account for it—Suggestion of	
what ought to have been done in 1816, instead of	
the consolidation of Exchequers.	308—326
Section III.—Consequences of the Consolidation Act	
considered—Its asserted purposes—How borne	

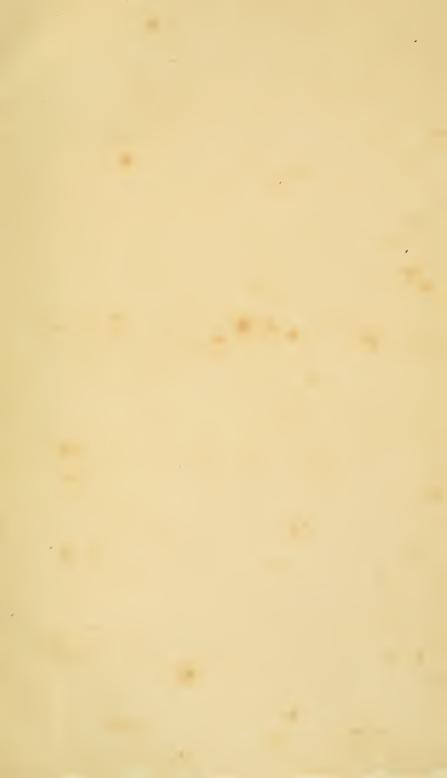
Page. out ?-Two professed boons to Ireland, viz., relief from unjust rate of contribution, and from the pressure of her accumulated debt; but instead of real relief from either, she has been subjected to a liability of indiscriminate contribution; operating whenever her revenues admit of it; and being lightened only when there is an impossibility of paying: and this liability is permanent upon her, until the whole of the enormous debt of Great Britain shall be paid off—Proofs of this 327 - 352Section IV.—That Ireland has thus paid in a higher proportion than before the Consolidation, is simply owing to the very great reduction of the common expenditure since the period of that measure.—The Union terms ought to have been tried under that reduced expenditure.—Why they were Most of the points of the Petition at the commencement of this article, are now proved. There remains but one of importance-viz., non-compensation (by remission of taxation) for the fiscal injustice done to Ireland-Evidence of this General remarks on the money drains from Irelandthe absentee drain—the revenue drain, credited and uncredited, &c., &c .- Balance of public money remitted from one country to the other-Circumstances of the expenditure of the Irish revenue 353 - 365Addendum to Taxation Injustice—Parliamentary returns of monies advanced for public works in Ireland, and their Repayments, &c. &c. 367-371 THE CHURCH TEMPORALITIES GRIEVANCE. Report of National Association on the subject in 1840 373-380 Admitted statement in Parliament in 1844, of the revenue of the Irish Church Establishment 381-382

	Page.
MISCELLANEA.	
1st. Extracts from Mr. Battersby's Repeal Manual	383—385
2nd. Irish bar protest against the Union, 1799 -	385—386
3rd. Declaration of Right Hon. Charles James Fox	
against the Union, May, 1800	387—388
4th. Resolutions of Orange Lodges against the Union,	
1800	388—391
5th. Notices of the Scottish Union	392—393
CONCLUDING REMARKS—	
On the present Distress, and the proposed remedies	394-402
Repeal the only remedy	402-403
POOR LAWS—	
History of, in England	406-417
How they have worked in Ireland	418-421
Indoor relief not suited to Ireland	421
Out-door relief—impossible to prevent frauds in -	421-425
American testimony as to their effect	425
ACT OF UNION of Great Britain and Ireland -	427
Schedule of articles chargeable with 10 per cent.	
duty on importation into Great Britain and Ireland	
respectively, according to sixth article of Union -	436
Schedule of articles chargeable with countervailing	
duties on importation into Great Britain from Ire-	
land, according to sixth article of Union -	450
Schedule of articles chargeable with countervailing	
duties on importation into Ireland from Great	
Britain, according to sixth article of Union -	462
Copy of Lords' Protest against—26th March, 1800	469
Re-construction of the Irish Parliament, Mr. O'Connell's	
Plan for the	473









DATE DUE				
		/		
-				
UNIVERSIT	Y PRODU	CTS, INC.	#859-5503	

